THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For APRIL 1800.

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EDINBURGH:

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NEW PATENT.

Fire Grates.

A PATENT was granted to James Burns of the city of Glaſgow, builder, for an invention of certain improvements applicable to fire grates, ſtoves, &c. The principal circumſtance in this invention is that of bringing the air which ſupplies the fire through a pipe, which communicates with the external air out of the room, which is warmed by the fire place; in common fires it is well known that the air neceſſary for conſuming the fuel, is ſupplied from the room itſelf, chiefly the lower part: and hence where there is a briſk fire, and the chimney only wide enough to convey away the ſmoke and heated air, there is a conſtant current of cold air ruſhing in under the door, between the window frames, and through every crevice of the room, in order to keep up the neceſſary ſupply. On this account the room is indeed well ventulated, but not ſo much or ſo uniformly heated as if the fire were ſupplied from without with air, and that in the room not ſo conſtantly changed. The fire-place here recommended is an elegant ſtove of the form of an urn, open at the top, and ſet in the uſual receſs for the fire. This ſtove has a grate at the part where it begins to grow narrow, and beneath this, an air pipe not communicating with the room, but paſſing, where it can be done, between two of the joiſts under the floor, and opening at the outſide of the houſe. The ſpace lying between the grate and the air pipe, or that which forms the pedeſtal of the urn-ſhaped ſtove, is a kind of moveable drawer that collects the aſhes as they fall from the fire, where they remain without flying about into the room, and may be taken out and emptied at any time. The air pipe is ſo contrived as to paſs quite under the pedeſtal, and to be then reflected backwards and upwards, ſo as to enter the cavity of the ſtove juſt above the drawer for the aſhes. Where the further orifice of the air pipe cannot be conveniently carried to the outſide of the houſe, it may be made to open into a cellar, or any cool room, and it will alſo have the advantage of keeping this room always fully ventilated, without giving it any heat, whenever a fire is burning at the grate in the other end of the pipe.

The patentee has, beſides, connected with this invention, a contrivance for applying a ſemicircular ſafeguard, or high fender of wire-work, to prevent the dreadful accidents that have ſo frequently ariſen from the cloaths of ladies, or children, catching fire.

The improvement here introduced appears to be one which merits public attention, for it is unqueſtionable, that in the preſent way of warming our apartments, we receive much leſs benefit than we ought from the quantity of fuel conſumed. This defect will certainly be remedied, in part, by the preſent contrivance, and will render rooms leſs obnoxious to thoſe currents of cold air ſetting in from the door to the fire place, which are ſo juſtly complained of. At the ſame time the view of a fire, which is ſo neceſſary to Engliſh ideas of a comfortable fire ſide, will be in a great meaſure retained by the open ſpace at the top of the ſtove. With regard to the novelty of this invention, it is ſimply in applying to the parlour a very well known and not very uncommon conſtruction for furnaces for chemical purpoſes. The ſuperior advantage of bringing a ſtream of cold air from without to ſupply the furnace, inſtead of the heated air of a laboratory, has been known to every chemiſt in every country for centuries; and the very conſtruction here mentioned, of confining the draught of a fire place to an air tube communicating to a diſtant part, has been practiſed in various inſtances.

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ACCOUNT OF DR JOSEPH WARTON.

THIS reſpectable ſcholar and amiable man was the eldeſt ſon of Mr Thomas Warton formerly of Magdalen College, Oxford; Poetry Profeſſor of that Univerſity; and vicar of Baſingſtoke and Cobham. He was born at Baſingſtoke about the year 1722, and received the early part of his education from his father, who was maſter of a ſchool there in high repute. Under his father's tuition he continued until about the year 1740, when he went off from the ſeminary to the Univerſity of Oxford ſecond on the roll, Wm Collins, the celebrated poet, being the firſt; and Mr Tulſo, afterwards Prebendary of Wincheſter, the third. He was entered of Oriel College, where he continued but little longer than he had taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts. At a late period, 23d June 1759, he was created M. A. by diploma.

In 1740 he wrote "The Enthuſiaſt, or Lover of Nature," a Poem, afterwards publiſhed in folio about 1745. This piece is preſerved in Dodſley's Collection of Poems, Vol. III. as is Faſhion, a Satire, which made its appearance about the ſame time. In 1746 he printed "Odes on various Subjects," 4to. conſiſting of fourteen, viz. 1. To Fancy. 2. To Liberty. 3. To Health. 4. To Superſtition. 5. To a Gentleman upon his Travels through Italy. 6. Againſt Deſpair. 7. To Evening. 8. To a Fountain. 9. To the Nightingale. 10. On the Spring. 11. To a Lady who hates the Country. 12. On the Death of his Father. 13. On Shooting. 14. To Solitude. To this publication he prefixed the following advertiſement: "The public has been ſo much accuſtomed of late to didactic poetry alone, and eſſays on moral ſubjects, that any work where the imagination is much indulged will perhaps not be reliſhed or regarded. The Author, therefore, of theſe pieces is in ſome pain, leſt certain auſtere critics ſhould think them too fanciful and deſcriptive. But as he is convinced that the faſhion of moralizing in verſe has been carried too far, and as he looks upon invention and imagination to be the chief faculties of a poet, ſo he will be happy if the following Odes may be looked upon as an attempt to bring back poetry upon its right channel." The next year he printed a ſecond edition. Of theſe Odes, that to Fancy is preeminently the beſt. The others, in the latter part of his life, had but little of their author's regard.

The publication of Mr Weſt's Pindar in 1749 gave riſe to our author's Ode occaſioned by reading that tranſlation. This performance was calculated to add little to the author's reputation, and we have been told that it never was mentioned in Dr Johnſon's preſence, without being ſubject to his ridicule. About this time Mr Warton was rector of Wynſlade, in Hampſhire, and travelled abroad, as we find from his "Verſes written at Montauban in France, 1750." It is ſuppoſed this tourdid not continue long. In 1753 he publiſhed his Edition of Virgil, in 4 Vols. 8vo. dedicated to Sir George Lyttelton, in which the Eclogues and Georgicks, with Notes on the whole, were by our author; and in the ſame year he was ſolicited by

by Dr Johnſon to aſſiſt in The Adventurer; and accordingly we ſee ſeveral papers by him, on the ſubject of Criticiſm, in that excellent work. He was at this time ſettled at Wincheſter ſchool; firſt as uſher, and afterwards, in due time, on the 7th of May 1766, as head-maſter, inſtead of Dr Burton. On the 15th of January 1768, he took his degree of Bachelor and Doctor of Divinity.

In 1756 he gave the world the firſt Volume of his Eſſay on the Genius and Writings of Pope; a work which appeared to be not intended to add to the celebrity of that poet, and which gave great offence to Biſhop Warburton. It was, however, well received by the public, and the concluſion of it impatiently expected. After twenty ſix years of delay, the ſecond Volume made its appearance in 1782. In this he ſpoke more favourably of Mr Pope than he had done in the former Volume, and the advertiſement prefixed, ſays, "he flatters himſelf that no obſervations in this work can be ſo perverſely miſinterpreted and tortured as to make him inſinuate, contrary to his opinion and inclination, that Pope was not a *great* poet; he only ſays and thinks he was not the *greateſt*." Both theſe Volumes have been ſeveral times reprinted.

His preferment in the Church was at no time very great. About 1787 he received the reward of his long ſervice in Wincheſter ſchool, by a prebend in that Cathedral. He about the ſame time relinquiſhed his long and laborious employment as a ſchool-maſter.

In 1787 he cauſed to be republiſhed "Sir Philip Sydney's Defence of Poetry, and Obſervations on Poetry and Eloquence from the Diſcoveries of Ben Jonhſon," 8vo.; and having for many years expreſſed his diſſatisfaction at "the many forced and far-fought interpretations totally unſupported by the paſſages they were brought to elucidate," in Warburton's edition of Pope, he determinded to give the public a new edition of that author himſelf. This he accompliſhed in 1797. If Dr Warburton's edition was liable to ſome blame, this of our author was was not free from imperfection. The introduction of ſeveral of the pieces, though they might be really the productions of the poet, cannot be paſſed over without cenſure. It has been reported that the chaſtiſement he received in a late popular poem, on account of his treatment of Pope, made a great impreſſion on his mind.

Dr Warton died 23d February 1800, at his living at Wickham in Hampſhire, at the age of 78 years. He had been twice married, and had ſeveral children.

He was cheerful and convivial; had an elegant taſte, with a lively imagination, and poſſeſſed no ſmall portion of learning, and was well verſed in the belles lettres of Europe. He alſo had a large fund of literary anecdotes, which made his company highly acceptable.

THE LIFE OF JOHN GREGORY, M. D. F. R. S.

Concluded from p. 149.

GREAT natural parts are not unfrequently rendered uſeleſs to the world, as well as to the poſſeſſor. The force of genius, by graſping at too great a number of objects, is exhauſted in the endleſs labour of accumulating promiſcuous or inſignificant facts, while, by confining its exertions to fewer objects, it might have improved and extended ſcience, as well as ſome of the uſeful arts. The moſt effectual check to this diſſipation of genius is the love of fame, which ſtimulates men to become authors. Superior powers of underſtanding, though they adorn any human character, are too ſeldom of much uſe to the public, and often ſtill leſs to the individual who

who poſſeſſes them. Men who ſpend moſt of their time in the exertions of the underſtanding, are by no means the moſt happy. They derive pleaſure, it muſt be acknowledged, from the purſuits or diſcovery of truth, and from a conſciouſneſs of ſuperior talents. But they are, in a great meaſure, deprived of many natural ſources of pleaſure. All the ſocial and public affections, if not properly cheriſhed and cultivated, ſoon become languid. People of this deſcription muſt, of courſe, live, in a manner, abſtracted from the world. Envy and jealouſy are remarkable among this claſs of men. Hence there is, perhaps, leſs real friendſhip among authors than among the reſt of mankind. Men of independent fortunes, who feel not the rivalſhip of authors, connect themſelves with thoſe who reſemble them in taſte and ſentiment; and, as there are no interferences in their purſuits, their friendſhips are often ſincere, and continue through life. In profeſſions where intereſt is the chief object, men are often moſt cordially attached to one another, provided the field of employment be ſufficiently ſpacious. In the purſuits of fame or vanity, however, the caſe is entirely reverſed. Here jealouſy admits of no rival. It makes people regard what is given to others as taken from themſelves. Hence that expreſſive ſilence, that cold and extorted approbation, beſtowed by rival authors on works which, by more impartial and diſintereſted judges, receive the warmeſt applauſe. Such generoſity and greatneſs of mind as render men ſuperior to ſo mean a jealouſy are virtues too rarely exhibited to the view of the world.

This almoſt perpetual conteſt among men of genius and learning prevents many of them from receiving that degree of fame to which they are juſtly entitled: It is alſo one of the chief cauſes which exclude them from that influence and aſcendency in the various profeſſions and affairs of life, which their talents would otherwiſe readily procure. Ignorant or dull people cannot comprehend the labours of men of genius, are afraid of them, and naturally combine againſt them; and the mutual diſſentions and jealouſies among ſuch men give dunces all the advantages which they ſo eagerly deſire.

Thoſe who occupy their time in the ſtudy of ſpeculative ſciences, ſoon blunt their ſocial affections, becauſe they are not properly exerciſed. For the ſame reaſon, the love of liberty and of country are rendered extremely feeble. No men, perhaps, entertain ſentiments of patriotiſm and public liberty with ſo much ardour, as thoſe who are juſt entering upon the world, and have received a liberal education. Youth, indeed, is the ſeaſon when generous and elevated ſentiments moſt eaſily penetrate the heart. At this moſt happy period of life, that acute love of independency, that zeal for public proſperity, which animated the ancient Greeks and Romans, are felt with peculiar warmth and enthuſiaſm. This fervour, however, too ſoon ſubſides. When young men engage in the buſineſs of active life, the manly and diſintereſted motives are in danger of being ſuffocated by diſſipation and corruption of manners which every where ſolicit attention, and debauch the manners of mankind. Depravity of manners at laſt becomes ſo enormous, that every pretenſion to public virtue is regarded as folly or hypocriſy. On the other hand, when particular men chuſe to lead a ſpeculative and ſedentary life, the active powers and virtues of the mind are ſtill more effectually annihilated. Steady and vigorous exertions can alone be ſupported by uniform habits of activity. Love of country and of the public can have no exiſtence among men who neither know nor love the individuals of which it is compoſed. When a man has a family and friends, theſe give him an intereſt in the communi-

ty and attach him to it. But, if he is a ſingle ſolitary animal, unconnected with family or friends, he can feel little or no affection for one country in preference to another.

If abſtraction from ſocial intercourſe be carried beyond its proper limits, it is uniformly accompanied with groſs ignorance of life and manners, and deprives a man of all thoſe little but neceſſary accompliſhments which are eſſential in poliſhed ſocieties. A neglect of thoſe often prevents the ſucceſs of perſons of real merit, and is a common ſource both of diſguſt at the world and at themſelves. Such men are apt to complain that merit, in this world, is almoſt entirely neglected. But no man, who has never taken the trouble of making his merit known, can have any title to make ſuch a complaint. Want of health is, likewiſe, moſt frequently a concomitant of genius, eſpecially when its exertions are more occupied with the ſpeculative than the active ſcenes of life. Vivacity of genius is generally attended with remarkable delicacy of conſtitution. A ſtudious, and, of courſe, a ſedentary life, augments this weakneſs, and creates a train of nervous diſorders, which render life burdenſome to the poſſeſſor, though not always uſeleſs to the public. Exerciſe and frequent relaxations of mind are the only effectual means of preventing or of removing theſe maladies.

Among the many inconveniences which originate from ſuperior talents, we may reckon that ſolitude in which they neceſſarily place a perſon on whom they are beſtowed. To the few who are capable of forming a judgment of his abilities, he becomes an object of jealouſy and of envy. Moſt men regard him with a diſtant awe which is perfectly incompatible with friendſhip and confidence. They never can unboſom themſelves to a perſon of whom ſuperiority of learning and genius makes them afraid. Hence it is not unfrequent to ſee men of parts aſſociating affectionately with thoſe who are greatly inferior to them in underſtanding, good-humoured people, with whom they can indulge, without reſerve, all their peculiarities and even weakneſſes.

From what has been delivered concerning the boaſted high privilege of being poſſeſſed of the reaſoning faculty, Dr Gregory draws the following ſtrange, but, perhaps, juſt concluſion; 'That, from the little influence it ſeems to have in promoting either public or private good, we are almoſt tempted to ſuſpect, that Providence deprives us of thoſe fruits we naturally expect from it, in order to preſerve a balance and equality among mankind. Certain it is, that virtue, genius, beauty, wealth, power, and every natural advantage one can be poſſeſſed of, are uſually mixed with ſome alloy, which diſappoint the fond hope of their raiſing the poſſeſſor to any uncommon degree of eminence, and even, in ſome meaſure, bring him down to the common level of his ſpecies *.'

That principle which induces men to aſſociate with one another, in Dr Gregory's eſtimation, ſeems to have no natural connection with the underſtanding; for perſons of the beſt underſtanding often poſſeſs it in a very inferior degree. But this, he obſerves, does not proceed from inſenſibility of heart, but from the languiſhing of the ſocial principle, by neglecting its proper cultivation and exerciſe. The idle and diſſipated derive moſt enjoyment from this principle; becauſe not only their pleaſures but their vices are generally of a ſocial nature. Even drinking, if not carried to exceſs, is favourable to this principle, particularly in northern climates, where the affections are naturally cold and phlegmatic: For generous liquor excites a warmth of temper, opens the heart, and diſpels that gloomy reſerve, which is perhaps too common among learned men, but is always inconſiſtent with

* Gregory's Works, vol. 2. p. 113.

the

the joys ariſing from ſympathetic and chearful affections. Thoſe elevated and warm deſcriptions of friendſhip, which charm the minds of youth, and repreſent it as the higheſt degree of human felicity, are ſeldom, if ever, realiſed in northern regions. High ſentiments of friendſhip, and even of love, are the productions chiefly of warmer climes. Many of the male ſex, becauſe they have ſome learning, aſſume a tone of ſuperior wiſdom, and conſider ſexual attachment as a weakneſs below the dignity of man; though they allow that the fair ſex are uſeful, and ſometimes deign to regard them as rational and agreeable companions. But this is, perhaps, only the language of inſenſibility of heart, or of diſappointed pride, rather than of wiſdom. Women were never deſpiſed by any man who was a favourite with them; nor does any man contemn love who ever was conſcious of loving and of being loved by a woman of merit.

In eaſtern climates, as the power of beauty is very abſolute, nothing but perſonal accompliſhments are held in eſtimation. Hence women, in theſe countries, are deprived of every opportunity of improvement, and ſpend their days in an ignominious confinement, excluded from a free and promiſcuous intercourſe with ſociety. But, in northern climates, ſuch as our own, the power of beauty is extremely limited. With us, accordingly, love is a feeble paſſion, and eaſily yields to intereſt, ambition, and even to vanity. Hence, in proportion, as luxury advances among us, love muſt ſoon be extinguiſhed, eſpecially in the higher ranks of life. To give love more force and permanency, it muſt be connected with ſentiment and eſteem. But this deſirable effect can never be produced as long as we continue to treat women like children. While uſed in this manner, their minds are depreſſed, and all generous emulation is annihilated. If treated in a more liberal manner, a ſenſe of their own dignity and value would induce them to become, what they ought to be, our friends and companions. This, however, can never be accompliſhed by laying aſide their own natural characters and aſſuming thoſe of the men. The two ſexes have very different parts to act on the theatre of life. Nature has ſufficiently marked their different characters, and enables both of them to perform their reſpective duties in ſociety. The original deſtination of men was to protect the women, and to provide ſubſiſtence for them and their children. The more laborious and active parts in the great ſcene of human affairs muſt be performed by the men. They muſt, of courſe, exert greater bodily ſtrength, greater perſonal courage, and greater powers of underſtanding. Domeſtic life, as friends, wives, and mothers, conſtitute the higheſt glories of the female character. Their office is to ſuperintend the oeconomy of families. A more important office is committed to their charge. Not only during infancy, but during that critical period when both the conſtitution of body, and the temper and diſpoſitions of the mind, are principally formed, the training of youth of both ſexes devolves chiefly upon the women. They ſoften our hearts and poliſh our manners. Men, it is true, have the power of directing public ſocieties as well as private families. But women poſſeſs a ſtrong defence againſt the abuſe of this power, by employing that ſoft and inſinuating addreſs, which enables them to controul it, and frequently to tranſfer it to themſelves.

From theſe and other circumſtances it is apparent, that women have a part to act in life which is both important and reſpectable; and nature has amply provided them with the means of accompliſhing that end. They poſſeſs, in a ſuperior degree, ſweetneſs of temper, gentleneſs of manners, and ſenſibility of heart. They are more chearful and vivacious than men; and they

have a quicker diſcernment of characters. They enjoy a more lively fancy and a greater delicacy of taſte. They are better judges of grace, elegance, and propriety. Hence they are ſuperior to men in ſuch works of taſte as depend on theſe qualities.

In the third ſection of his *Comparative View*, Dr Gregory gives an ingenious account of the ſeveral advantages and pleaſures which mankind derive from what is called *Taſte*, or a proper uſe of the powers of imagination.

In the fifth and laſt ſection of the *Comparative View*, Dr Gregory treats of *Religion;* and he conſiders it chiefly as a principle founded in human nature, and treats of the influence it may or actually has on the happineſs of our ſpecies.

I cannot conclude this analyſis of Dr Gregory's *Comparative View of the State and Faculties of Man with thoſe of the Animal World*, without remarking, that, after peruſing the book, every intelligent reader muſt perceive the little connexion between the title and the work itſelf. The idea was ingenious; but it is by no means elucidated, or even followed. An accurate inveſtigation of the mental faculties and diſpoſitions of the inferior animals compared and occaſionally contraſted with thoſe of man, is a great and a fertile ſubject; and it is to be regretted that Dr Gregory did not execute his ſeemingly intended plan; for his genius and abilities would certainly have enabled him to accompliſh a taſk, which would infallibly have both pleaſed and informed the public. He, indeed, makes a few curſory and general remarks on the condition of brute animals. But man is his principal object; and he has conſidered him in many intereſting points of view.

I ſhall now proceed with the hiſtory of this conſpicuous and amiable character.

Dr Gregory remained in Aberdeen till the end of the year 1764, when he changed his place of reſidence, and went to Edinburgh; and, in the year 1766, he was appointed Profeſſor of the Practice of Phyſic in that Univerſity, upon the reſignation of the late learned and ingenious Dr Rutherford. Here Dr Gregory continued to lecture to great numbers of pupils during the years 1767, 1768, and 1769. By agreement with the late Dr Cullen, Profeſſor of the Theory of Medicine, theſe two eminent men gave alternate courſes of the Theory and of the Practice of Phyſic. As a public ſpeaker, Dr Gregory's manner was ſimple and animated; and he expreſſed his ideas with uncommon perſpicuity. By the aſſiſtance of a few notes he lectured with great facility and elegance. The only lectures which he fully extended in writing were thoſe he read as introductory to his annual courſe. Theſe he publiſhed in the year 1770, under the title of *Lectures on the Duties and Qualifications of a Phyſician.*

Dr Gregory, in this work, has two objects chiefly in view. I. He points out thoſe accompliſhments which qualify a Phyſician for performing the practical duties of his profeſſion. II. He gives rules for inquiry which he thought neceſſary to be obſerved in the ſtudy of Medicine as a branch of natural knowledge. His remarks on the former of theſe ſubjects, and particularly on the delicate attentions neceſſary to thoſe whoſe minds are debilitated by diſeaſe, are reſults of the author's acquaintance with human nature, as well as of that benignity of temper by which all his writings are diſtinguiſhed. Neither does his character appear in a leſs advantageous light from his liberal remarks on the *lucrative* part of his profeſſion. On this topic he expreſſes himſelf with conſiderable animation againſt the unworthy artifices and ſervile manners by which it has too often been degraded

raded. In the three firſt lectures. Dr Gregory's remarks on theſe, and other topics highly intereſting to practical Phyſicians, fully juſtify his general inference, 'That the profeſſion of Medicine requires a more comprehenſive mind than any other.' This will appear to be an unqueſtionable truth to every perſon who conſiders the great variety of ſpeculative knowledge, and of literary accompliſhments which are neceſſarily to be acquired in a medical education; beſide the ſagacity, the addreſs, and the knowledge of mankind, which ought to regulate the Phyſician in the practical part of his art. To all thoſe who knew Dr Gregory, it muſt have been apparent, that the talents and accompliſhments which he deſcribed to his pupils as the gifts of nature conjoined with education, were actually united in his own perſon.

The three laſt lectures are principally confined to medicine as a branch of natural knowledge. They exhibit more fully than any of our author's other works the extent of his philoſophical views, and from them we have the greateſt reaſon to lament the loſs which the ſcience of medicine ſuſtained by his death. No intelligent reader can poſſibly peruſe them without regretting that his ingenious and benevolent exertions for the improvement of the medical art were ſo early interrupted. Lord Verulam, in his *Novum Organum*, has given many excellent rules with regard, chiefly, to the method of *philoſophiſing*. Though he confines his views principally to Phyſic and Chemiſtry, yet his remarks upon the art of Medicine merit attention. Though no phyſician, Dr Gregory remarks, Lord Verulam poſſeſſed 'as juſt and comprehenſive views in medicine as any phyſician who ever wrote.'

In the year 1772, Dr Gregory publiſhed *Elements of the Practice of Phyſic, for the uſe of Students*. This work was ſolely intended for his own pupils; and, in his lectures, he commented upon it as a text-book. His deſign was to treat of all the diſeaſes comprehended in his lectures. But this he did not accompliſh. The book, accordingly, contains only the claſs of Febrile Diſeaſes. In his introductory lectures formerly mentioned, Dr Gregory had delivered his ſentiments with regard to the proper mode of conducting medical inquiries in the preſent imperfect ſtate of that ſcience. He never attempted to miſlead the ſtudents by flattering views of the perfection of the medical art. On the contrary, he anxiouſly pointed out its defects, which he conſidered as a principal ſtep to promote its improvement. He expoſed the futility of thoſe theories and hypotheſes which had been moſt generally received, and inculcated the danger of fabricating ſyſtems upon a limited and often very imperfect knowledge of genuine facts. He conſidered that a rational theory of medicine had never yet been deviſed. For this reaſon he communicated to his ſtudents the greateſt portion of practical facts, as the only baſis on which ſuch a theory could ever be eſtabliſhed.

When treating of the ſeveral diſeaſes, Dr Gregory firſt deſcribed thoſe ſymptoms by which particular maladies are characteriſed. From the general, he proceeded to the more particular ſeries of ſymptoms, together with their occaſional varieties. With great preciſion, he points out the *diagnoſtic* ſymptoms, or thoſe which diſtinguiſh one diſeaſe from others that reſemble it, and marks the prognoſtics which enable a phyſician to form probable conjectures concerning the event of a diſeaſe. He next ſpecified the cauſes of diſeaſes, namely, the prediſpoſing, the occaſional, and the proximate. Finally, he taught the general plan of cure, the proper remedies to be employed, and the cautions requiſite in adminiſtering them. Deſirous of eſtabliſhing the ſcience of medicine upon the ſolid foundation of practice and experience, he uniformly endeavoured

voured, both by his precepts and example, to impreſs on the minds of his pupils the neceſſity of great caution either in admitting or rejecting what are commonly, though often extremely doubtful, called *medical facts* or *caſes*.

Soon after the death of his wife, and, as he tells us himſelf, for the amuſement of his leiſure-hours, he compoſed that ingenious and amiable little work, entitled, *A Father's Legacy to his Daughters*, which was publiſhed after the death of the author. From this treatiſe it is apparent, that Dr Gregory had peruſed *Rouſſeau's* ſyſtem of education; for from that work he has adopted whatever appeared to him to be valuable. But, in the character of *Sophia*, and in the plan of her education, he perceived both imperfections and abſurdities. The buſineſs of the French philoſopher was to paint imaginary or romantic characters. But the only aim of our author was to deliver to his daughters, in the language of prudence and parental affection, ſuch precepts as he thought would be moſt conducive to their honour and happineſs, and to mark thoſe virtues and accompliſhments which would make them both amiable and reſpectable to the worthieſt part of the other ſex.

Good ſenſe was the moſt conſpicuous feature in the mind of Dr Gregory; but, what is by no means always the caſe, it was united with genius and acuteneſs of intellect. From his 18th year, he had been occaſionally afflicted with the gout, which he inherited from his mother, who, in the year 1770, died ſuddenly, when ſitting at table. Dr Gregory went to bed on the 9th of February 1773, apparently in good health; but was found dead next morning.

In his perſon, the Doctor was above the ordinary ſize. His limbs were not very active; he ſtooped a little in his gait; and his countenance, from a fullneſs of feature and a heavineſs of eye, exhibited no marks of ſuperior powers of mind. But, in converſation, his features became animated, and his eye expreſſive. He had a warmth of tone and of geſture, which were highly intereſting. United with this animated manner, he diſcovered a mildneſs and ſimplicity, which were more attractive than the moſt artificial addreſs. In the company of literary men, his converſation flowed with eaſe; and, on whatever ſubject, he delivered his ſentiments without affectation or reſerve. His benevolent affections were ſtrong, and, in the line of his profeſſion, they were moſt peculiarly exerted.

With regard to his pupils, he confined not himſelf to a faithful diſcharge of his profeſſional duties. Many of theſe were far removed from all thoſe who had a natural intereſt in their happineſs. To young men ſo ſituated, it was a great conſolation to find a friend who was of eaſy acceſs, and always ready to aſſiſt them with his advice and protection. To his intimate friends, by whom he was highly beloved, his ſpirit of philanthropy peculiarly endeared him.

In the latter period of his life, when he reſided in Edinburgh, he lived in habits of great intimacy with moſt of the Scottiſh Literati; ſuch as, Doctors Robertſon and Blair, David Hume, John Home, Lord Monboddo, Lord Kames, and the elder Mr Tytler. He left three ſons, James Gregory now Profeſſor of the Theory of Medicine, the reſpectable and ingenious ſucceſſor of his father; William Gregory, M. A. of Baliol College, Oxford, Rector of St Mary Breadman, and one of the Six Preachers in the Cathedral Church of Canterbury; John, who died in the year 1783: And two daughters,—Dorothea, wife of the Rev. Mr Archibald Aliſon of Baliol College, and Anne-Margaret, married to John Forbes, Eſq; of Blackford, in the county of Aberdeen.

Upon the whole, whether he is conſidered

ſidered as a man of genius and of the world, or with regard to his conduct in the line of his profeſſion, few human characters will be found to equal that of the late Dr JOHN GREGORY.

ANECDOTES RELATIVE TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

By M. Bertrand de Molleville.

Mirabeau.

M. MALOUET, ſays M. Bertrand, relates the following anecdote of Mirabeau, which is of too intereſting a nature to be paſſed over in ſilence.

'I knew M. de Mirabeau,' ſays he, 'only by his character, from which I was greatly inclined to ſhun him. We took different ſides from the firſt ſittings of the (national) aſſembly, and I little expected to be ſought for by him, when M. du Roverai, with whom I was acquainted at Geneva, and was then at Verſailles, told me from him, that he wiſhed very much to confer with me. I accepted an appointment at M. du Roverai's where I found another perſon from Geneva, a M. Dumons. This was in the end of May 1789. My diſtruſt of M. de Mirbeau, kept pace with my prepoſſeſſion againſt him. I conſidered him as one of the moſt dangerous innovators, and was very much aſtoniſhed at the manner in which he accoſted me. 'I have been anxious,' ſaid he, 'for an explanation with you, becauſe in ſpite of your moderation I diſcover you to be a friend of liberty; and I am, perhaps, more alarmed than you at the ferment I ſee in the minds of men, and at the miſchiefs that may flow from it. I am not a perſon to ſell myſelf baſely to deſpotiſm: I wiſh for a free but monarchical conſtiution. I am not for ſhaking the monarchy; and if meaſures be not ſpeedily taken, the very bad heads, the great inexperience and arrogance which I perceive in our aſſembly, and the inconſiderate reſiſtance and provocation given by the two firſt orders, (the nobility and clergy) make me fear as much as you that there will be dreadful commotions. I therefore addreſs myſelf to you an honeſt man. You are connected with M. Neckar and M. de Montmorin; you muſt know their intention, and whether they have a plan or not. If they have a reaſonable plan I will ſupport it.' This declaration made a great impreſſion upon me, and it was ſufficiently rational for me to believe it ſincere; Mirabeau's intellects were ſound; he did not chooſe miſchief for miſchief's ſake. Upon ſeveral important queſtions, and particularly upon the conſtitutions of the commons, in a national aſſembly, his opinions were ſeen to be monarchical. I yielded to this explanation with a kind of confidence: I told him frankly that I thought as he did: that I had no doubt of the neceſſity for a plan of reform and of a conſtitution that might ſatisfy the reaſonable expectations of the nation —but that I did not know, and very much doubted, whether or not the miniſters had any determined plan; that the heſitation I had perceived in them had alarmed me, as much as the arrogance of many of my colleagues.

'Well,' ſaid he, 'will you propoſe to them to ſee and confer with me?'

'I conſented, and informed M. Neckar and M. de Montmorin of the reſult of my converſation. I found them both extremely averſe to any intercourſe with Mirabeau, from his immorality, his character, and the little confidence he merited. I contended againſt all theſe objections: I repreſented, that the man who with great talents announced honeſt views; who, notwithſtanding his immorality, a did not appear to have yet engaged in any party, and would give great weight to that which he ſhould embrace; and who, far from offering himſelf to be a corrupt tool, explained himſelf in ſuch a manner that it was impoſſible to propoſe to him any ſort of condition, or fictitious

fictitious part, deferved to be heard. It was agreed that M. Neckar fhould receive him the next day, and the conference took place. But Mirabeau expected they would open themfelves to him, whereas they only conſented to hear what he had to ſay. He waited fort he communication of a plan, and it is probable that they had not one to communicate. The conference accordingly was dry and ſhort: he went away diſcontented, and ſaid to me, as he came into the hall, *I go there no more, but they ſhall hear of me*; and he has been but too true to his word. There ended our intercorſe and I was two years without ſpeaking to him.'

Mirabeau and Fayette.

It was impoſſible, in fact, that there could be the ſlighteſt degree of intelligence between two men, who ſo cordially deteſted, while they thought they deſpiſed, each other. Had they not been divided irrevocably by their conſtant rivalry in ambition and popularity, they muſt neceſſarily have been ſo by the immenſe diſtance at which they were placed, by the difference of their character and genius, if however we may call the petty faculties of M. de la Fayette, by the name of genius.

In an interview between them, which had been brought about by their mutual friends to reconcile them, Mirabeau having for the execution of ſome plan propoſed means of a violent nature, M. de la Fayette ſtarted, and exclaimed, 'Nay, M. de Mirabeau, it is impoſſible that a man of honour can employ ſuch means.' 'A man of honour!' replied Mirabeau: 'Ah! M. de la Fayette, I ſee that you would be a *Grandiſon Cromwell*. You will ſee where ſuch a mixture will lead you.' Another time, upon a ſimilar occaſion, M. de la Fayette complaining bitterly of the atrocious projects which were formed againſt him by his enemies, and by Mirabeau himſelf, the latter called upon him to explain. 'Well, then, replied M. de la Fayette, 'I will tell you, ſince you force me to it, that I was thoroughly acquainted with your intention of having me aſſaſſinated.'—'I, ſir?'—'Yes, ſir, in ſuch a place, on ſuch a day, at ſuch an hour; I was ſure of it.'—'You were ſure of it!—You were ſure of it, M. de la Fayette! and I ſtill alive!—What a good creature you are! And you think of taking the leading parts in a Revolution!'

Mirabeau's Death.

Mirabeau poſſeſſed ſo robuſt a conſtitution, ſuch extraordinary ſtrength, that it was very generally ſuſpected he had been poiſoned. But he was opened, in preſence of ſeveral of the faculty, by his own phyſician, who was affectionately attached to him, and not the ſlighteſt appearance of poiſon was perceived. For near a month before, his health, which he never took care of, had been much impaired by frequent attacks of the cholic, and the diſorder that proved fatal was the natural and immediate conſequence of a debauch, which he had carried to the greateſt exceſs.

Thus died this man, who was poſſeſſed of qualities doubtleſs very rare, but the moſt fatal when not the moſt valuable. He had ſufficient energy, ſufficient ambition, and more talents than neceſſary to fill the higheſt offices with great eminence; in a word, to be a great man, if the violence of his paſſions and his love of money, had not always rendered him a contemptible one, and often a rated. It would be very difficult to ſelect a ſingle period of his life, free from errors or crimes. If he had not died ſo ſoon, he might, by important ſervices, have repaired a part of the miſchief he had done; he might perhaps have ſaved the monarchy: but Providence, which ſometimes ſuffers the wicked to triumph and to oppreſs virtue, very rarely permits the ignominious path of wickedneſs to lead to that of real glory.

A SHORT ACCOUNT OF GILSLAND, AND ITS MINERAL WATERS.

AS this watering place is yearly coming into more repute, the following account of the place, and analyſis of its waters, by Dr Garnett, late of Glaſgow, now Profeſſor of Natural Philoſophy and Chemiſtry in the Royal Inſtitution, London, will prove acceptable, we truſt, to our readers.

Gilſland is a watering-place in Cumberland, which has been long reſorted to by invalids and others from Scotland, and the northern counties of England. It is ſituated about eighteen miles north of the road leading from Carliſle to Newcaſtle, and is about eighteen diſtant from the former place. There are only two houſes for the accommodation of the company, which are large, and upon the plan of thoſe at Harrowgate. As living is here remarkably cheap, and the tables very well furniſhed, this place is reſorted to by many beſides invalids.

The morning, when fine, is generally ſpent in walking and riding; the dinner hour is three; and after tea the company go to the ball-room to dance, which continues till nine, the hour of ſupper.

The mixture of company from different parts of Great Britain and Ireland, all aſſociated together like one family, whoſe great object is to ſpend the time agreeably, is extremely faſcinating. This promiſcuous aſſociation leads, as might be expected, to that more intimate acquaintance between the ſexes, which produces courtſhip: in fact, Gilſland is more celebrated as a match-making place, than any watering place in Britain; and the celebrated temple of Hymen, Gretna Green, being only eighteen miles diſtant, is frequently reſorted to by the fond couples, where the veteran deſcendant of Vulcan rivets the fetters which he keeps ready *forged* for the purpoſe*.

* The certificates of the marriage are often kept ready ſigned, with blanks left for the names of the parties. The form of one of theſe, with a more particular account of the ceremony, will be found in the Statiſtical Account; for which ſee alſo Vol. iv. N. Series of this Mag. p. 82.

The names of the two houſes are, the Shaws, or Shaw-houſe, which ſome think is corrupted from Spaw-houſe, and the Orchard-houſe; which are nearly a mile diſtant from each other, and both pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Irthing; a very romantic river. The Shaws is indeed delightfully ſituated on a ſteep bank of the river, and commands a very extenſive proſpect to the ſouth. Immediately beyond the houſe, you deſcend by a ſteep gravel walk to the river, where you find yourſelf in the midſt of a finely wooded amphitheatre, of ſtratified rocks, which forms as ſublime a piece of ſcenery as can almoſt be imagined. On both ſides of the river are ſeveral beautiful walks, with benches placed at proper points of view.

Out of the loweſt ſtratum of the rock which compoſes this amphitheatre, and which conſiſts of indurated aluminous ſhiſtus, about ſix feet in thickneſs, iſſues the mineral water, through a leaden pipe not an inch in diameter, in a ſtream as clear as cryſtal, at the rate of about two gallons and a half per minute. Its ſmell is ſtrongly ſulphurous, like the waters of Harrowgate and Moffat; ſtronger than the latter, but leſs powerful than the former. This ſmell may often be diſtinctly perceived at the diſtance of forty or fifty yards. Above this ſtratum of indurated ſhiſtus is one about three feet thick of ſhale, or ſulphuret of alumine, in a ſoft crumbling ſtate; and above that, about twelve feet of argillaceous ſhiſtus: above that again, nearly the ſame thickneſs of very ſoft ſhale; this is covered with argillaceous ſandſtone, or grit, in ſeveral diſtinct

ſtrata, which extend at leaſt 25 feet in depth, and over-hang the mineral ſpring. The top of this precipice is finely clothed with wood.

There are ſeveral objects within a moderate diſtance, which are frequently viſited by the company: among theſe may be mentioned a very fine caſcade, about two miles above the Shaws, where the Irthing, whoſe banks are very rugged and romantic, precipitates itſelf from a great height, forming a fall ſcarcely inferior to ſome of the celebrated falls of the Clyde, only the accompanying ſcenery is not ſo fine.

At a ſhort diſtance from Gilſland, on the oppoſite ſide of the river, the Roman wall, between the Solway Frith and the eaſtern coaſt near Newcaſtle, may be diſtinctly traced, and ſtones with inſcriptions are ſometimes found. Several of the ſtations are very conſpicuous, particularly one near Glenwey1r, near which are the ruins of an old fortreſs called Caſtle Thelwal.

At the diſtance of about ſix miles from Gilſland, is Naward Caſtle, a ſeat of the Earl of Carliſle, which is a place of great antiquity, but very perfect: a viſit to it gives a better idea of what theſe ancient fortreſſes have been, than moſt places I have ſeen. Many of the galleries and ſubterraneous paſſages, as well as ſome very large halls, are quite entire; and it is ſaid, that the ingenious author of the Romance of the Foreſt ſketched ſome of her moſt ſtriking pictures of ſuch ſcenery from this caſtle. The greateſt curioſity, in my opinion, is the library of William Earl of Carliſle, whoſe character is well known, and whoſe memory is handed down among the common people by the appellation of *belt Willie.* Here are contained his printed books and manuſcripts in vellum bindings; many of the manuſcripts are very curious, and ſome beautifully illuminated. Here are likewiſe his chair and reading-deſk, both of very clumſy workmanſhip, and a curious ſcreen, on which is engroſſed an account of the indulgences ſold by the Pope and his retailers. All ſeems to be exactly in the ſtate in which it was left by the noble occupier of the apartment. About a mile from Naward Caſtle, is the Abbey of *Lanercroſt*, part of which ſerves the purpoſe of a pariſh-church, but the greater part is in ruins, which are very fine. An account of this abbey and Naward caſtle may be found in Nicholſon's hiſtory of Cumberland.

As the properties of the Gilſland waters are but little known, no analyſis of them having been publiſhed that I know of; during a reſidence at this place, in the month of September laſt, I made ſome experiments on them, of which the following were the principal reſults.

Experiment 1. Characters written on paper with *acetite of lead*, were ſoon rendered viſible by being immerſed in the water, or even ſuſpended over it: the colour was at firſt brown, and afterwards black.

2. A ſolution of *acetite of lead* in diſtilled water, being dropped into the water, produced a very copious brown precipitate, which afterwards changed to black.

3. *Nitrate of ſilver* produced a light brown precipitate, which afterwards changed to black.

4. *Muriate of barytes* produced no effect.

5. No change was produced by *acid of ſugar.*

6. *Tincture of galls* produced no alteration.

7. After the water had been boiled for about ten minutes, acetite of lead and nitrate of ſilver produced a white precipitate, but muriates of barytes and acid of ſugar no effect.

From theſe experiments it is evident that this water is impregnated with *ſulphurated hydrogen gas*, that it neither contains ſulphuric acid, lime, nor iron; but that it, probably, contains ſome muriate, as would appear from

from the effects produced by the nitrate of silver: accordingly, on evaporating slowly a wine-gallon of this water, I found four grains of saline matter, which was chiefly *muriate of soda*, or common salt.

Twenty-five cubic inches of gaseous fluids were expelled from a wine-gallon of the water, of which seventeen were sulphurated hydrogen gas, four azotic gas, and four carbonic acid gas. The analysis of a gallon of this water will therefore stand thus:

Muriate of soda, or common salt	4	grains
Sulphurated hydrogen gas	17	cubic inches.
Azotic gas	4	cubic inches.
Carbonic acid gas	4	cubic inches.

So that it resembles the sulphureous water of Moffat, of which I have given an account in the ninth number of the Medical and Physical Journal. When the gases are expelled by boiling for a few minutes, the water washes very well, and makes excellent tea.

Though this is the water which is resorted to and chiefly drank at Gilfland, there is a fine chalybeate near the Shaws, which deserves more attention than has hitherto been paid to it. It is situated on the common, at the distance of not more than two hundred yards from the house, in a boggy or mossy soil; the road to it is very bad, but might easily be made better. The water sparkles a little when poured out of one glass into another, has a strong inky taste, and deposits a copious yellow sediment.

The following experiments were made with this water.

1. *Tincture of galls* produced a beautiful dark purple colour.

2. *Muriate of barytes* caused no change.

3. *Acid of sugar* produced no effect.

4. *Acetite of lead* caused a white cloud.

5. *Nitrate of silver* the same.

When boiled, it deposited a yellow sediment, and tincture of galls then produced no effect: but acetite of lead and nitrate of silver caused the same changes as before.

From these experiments it is evident that this water contains iron, held in solution by a volatile acid, which is undoubtedly the carbonic, of which it contains about thirteen or fourteen cubic inches, with about five or six cubic inches of azotic gas, for the experiment was not made with great nicety. It appears, likewise, that it contains the muriatic acid combined with some base; and on evaporating a wine-gallon of the water, I found it contained two grains and a half of iron, and about three of common salt or muriate of soda.

A wine-gallon of the Gilfland chalybeate water appears therefore to contain

Of iron	2½	grains
Muriate of soda	3	grains
Carbonic acid gas about	14	cubic inches.
Azotic gas	5	cubic inches.

So that it very much resembles the chalybeates at Moffat and Harrowgate, and indeed the greater number of chalybeate waters, which generally contain from two to three grains of iron, suspended by carbonic acid.

While I was at Gilfland, some water was brought to me, taken up from a spring about four miles distant, which was transparent, but of the colour of brandy. It had a strong ferruginous, styptic taste, much stronger than ink.

Tincture of galls produced a precipitate, which very much resembled Prussian blue, but a little darker. Muriate of barytes caused a copious precipitate. Acid of sugar and nitrate of silver produced no change; acetite of lead caused a thick white sediment. From these experiments, and the evaporation of some of the water, it appears a saturated solution of sulphate of iron and sulphate of alumine. It is much too strong and unpleasant for internal use, but it has been employed externally to wash old ulcers with very great effect.

The ſulphureous water, which is the only one much reſorted to, is chiefly uſed in what are called bilious and nervous complaints, and, in ſhort, in all dyſpeptic caſes. It is drank in doſes of from half a pint to two or three quarts in a morning, and generally acts very powerfully as a diuretic, but often produces coſtiveneſs; which ought to be carefully obviated, otherwiſe a diſagreeable giddineſs comes on.

The moſt important properties of this water, reſulting from its application as a warm bath in herpetic eruptions, chronic rheumatiſms, and ſeveral other diſeaſes, as is done at Harrowgate and Moffat, are here entirely neglected, there being no conveniencies for bathing. I endeavoured to perſuade Mr Goultherd, who keeps the Shaws, to get a bathing-tub, and provide proper accommodations for warm bathing, which he promiſed to do. The chalybeate water deſerves much more attention than has been hitherto paid to it, and would probably be much more uſeful in nervous and dyſpeptic complaints than the ſulphur water. THO. GARNETT.

Royal Inſtitution, Albemarle-Street, Jan. 15, 1800.

OBSERVATIONS AND ENQUIRIES CONCERNING THE FLIGHT OF BIRDS.

SIR,

I do not recollect to have any where met with a ſatisfactory theory of the flight of birds; it has hitherto, I believe, been generally ſuppoſed, that the proceſs was purely mechanical, and that the motion of birds, through the air, was entirely the effect of the action of the wings and tail; but it will, on due examination, as I conceive, appear that mere mechaniſm will not adequately account for all the phænomena of flying, and that we muſt have recourſe to ſome principle of an higher order. It muſt at the ſame time be allowed, that nature has with the utmoſt ingenuity of contrivance adapted the general conformation of the feathered tribe to this purpoſe. The bones are hollow, and remarkably lighter than thoſe of quadrupeds; their external covering, by increaſing their volume with little addition to the weight, diminiſhes the ſpecific gravity of the whole in a conſiderable degree; while in the ſubſtance of feathers, levity and ſtrength are wonderfully combined; and the pectoral muſcles, which move the wings, are remarkable for their ſize, their ſtrength, and the proportion which they bear to the reſt of the body; all theſe circumſtances, together with the arrangement and diſpoſition of the pinion feathers, contribute, no doubt, in ſome degree to the mechanical part of the power of flying. But there remains ſtill ſomething to be accounted for, which tranſcends all powers of mechaniſm. To this obſervation I have been led by ſome remarks which I had an opportunity of making in ſeveral paſſages to and from the Eaſt Indies, on the flight of ſome ſpecies of ſea-fowl.

It ſcarcely can have eſcaped the obſervation of any individual, that there is a difference in the manner of flight of different ſpecies of birds: in ſome, as in the tribe called *motacilla*, and in the pigeon kind, the effect is produced by a perpetual ſtrong vibratory motion of the wings; in other ſpecies the bird is wafted through a conſiderable ſpace without any apparent motion of the wings, as in the hawk and kite tribe; but this mode of flight is ſtill more remarkable in ſeveral ſpecies of ſea-fowl, particularly in one called albatroſs. This is a bird well known to all who have paſſed round the Cape of Good Hope; it is in body nearly the ſize of a ſwan; the wings are of great length, extending in ſome to more than nine feet from tip to tip; the body is covered with a very thick, downy

downy coat of feathers, as in moſt of the ſea-fowl; they are rarely ſeen to the weſtward of the Cape of Good Hope in the India paſſages, but probably may be found in plenty off Cape Horn, and are ſeldom ſeen in a latitude under thirty-ſix degrees. I have frequently with admiration watched the flight of theſe birds; they ſkim through the air to a conſiderable diſtance, without any apparent motion of the wings, making complete revolutions round the ſhip, and proceeding with great velocity either with or againſt the wind. I have ſeen them as near as ten or twelve feet, and have watched them with the utmoſt attention, without perceiving the ſmalleſt motion in the wings or tail. It has been ſaid, that this motion, which is called ſoaring, is produced by a perpetual ſmall vibratory motion of the wings; but this appears to me to be without any foundation; the form of the wings in the bird of which I am writing is by no means adapted to ſuch a quick motion, nor is it conceivable, that in wings ſo long as are thoſe of this bird in queſtion, a motion of this kind ſhould not become perceptible at the ſmall diſtances at which I have ſeen it paſs.

Now, although the conformation of the animal is ſo ingeniouſly adapted to mechanic flight, yet ſomething more ſeems to be neceſſary. A progreſſive motion of the whole body, with a velocity of fifteen or twenty or probably more miles in an hour, is produced, and that either with or againſt the wind, or in a dead calm. How is this motion cauſed? By what power is the body impelled with ſo conſiderable a velocity? There is no perceptible motion of the wings, no mechanical principle to which we can have recourſe; and I can only account for it, by ſuppoſing it to be the immediate effect of a mental energy, a volition, the mind acting upon matter. Something analogous to this we find in our muſcular motion, when from a ſtate of reſt a limb is put into action; but that which in this caſe extends only to a limb, extends in the bird to the whole body; as we feel a conſciouſneſs that our muſcles will move in obedience to our volitions, ſo the bird muſt feel a conſciouſneſs of a power of wafting himſelf though the air in all directions. Of the mode of action of the mind upon body we know but little; we mark the effect, and there our knowledge ceaſes.

On communicating this idea to a friend, to whoſe ſuperior endowments I have ever bowed with deference; he objected, "That to account for the flight of a bird, by ſaying it was the effect of a volition, did not ſeem to him to excite any new idea in his mind, or to advance his knowledge; for who ever doubted, that the flight of birds was as much connected with volition as the walking of a man, the galloping of a horſe, the ſkipping of a monkey, or the ſwimming of a fiſh; that although we may not be able to diſcern the mechanical part of the flight, it is too much to infer that it does not exiſt; that to account for two things ſo much alike as the flight of one ſpecies of birds and that of another, or perhaps of two ſets of motion in the ſame bird, by principles ſo different, was contrary to all analogy; and that all birds which ſoar have remarkable long wings, which ſeems to have regard to mechaniſm."

He further alleged, "That a perſon on ſeeing for the firſt time, an expert ſkaiter, might with equal ſeeming reaſon ſuppoſe that motion to be the immediate effect of a volition, as the motion generated ſeems ſo diſproportionate to the original impetus; and if this motion, in which the body meets with the reſiſtance of one medium more than the bird, may be cauſed by ſuch a trifling original impulſe, may not the bird, gliding through a free medium, be ſuppoſed to be eaſily wafted through a much greater ſpace, by a ſmall occaſional impulſe from the mo-

motions of the wings and tail?" All this, I readily allow, is ingenious and forcible and I doubt not will, to many, appear perfectly ſatisfactory, without having recourſe to any principle beſides the one uſually admitted. But I muſt ſay, that my mind is not ſatisfied with this reaſoning.—I do not contend for any diſtinction in the nature of the volitions of the birds and other animals, but for the degree of their influence on matter: when a man walks, a horſe gallops, or a monkey jumps, the original motion in the muſcles of the limbs, from a previous ſtate of reſt, is doubtleſs produced by the action of mind upon body; but the progreſſive motion of the whole body is cauſed mechanically, and may be explained by the principle of the action and re-action of matter upon matter; and could a machine be contrived ſimilar in form to either of the above mentioned animals, and a ſimilar motion or conatus to motion be impreſſed upon the limbs, the progreſſive motion of the whole body would be produced as in the live animal; there is a ſeries of motions in the parts from which reſults the progreſſive motion of the whole in a ſtraight line. But in the flight of the bird of which I am writing, every thing is different, the parts are all relatively at reſt, while the whole proceeds forward with the very conſiderable degree of velocity above mentioned. In one caſe there is a ſeries of motions interpoſed between the original volition, and the ultimate effect on the whole body; in the other there is no ſuch interpoſition, and the whole body is apparently wafted through the air, in direct obedience to the will. The length and the ſize of the wings aſſiſt in ſupporting the bird in the air, by acting as a parachute; but if vitality ſhould be immediately deſtroyed, they could not prevent the body from deſcending, as we may ſee when the animal ſuddenly receives a ſhot.

In the inſtance of the ſkaiter, the motion is in an horizontal direction, and the weight is ſupported by the ice; the ſmalleſt impulſe beyond that which may be requiſite to overcome the friction, which in this caſe is but trifling, will give motion to the body, and the velocity will be in proportion to the impreſſed force; but this impulſe is produced as in walking, by puſhing back one foot.

In the flight of the bird, I can diſcern no impulſe which I can conceive to be competent to the production of ſuch a velocity, and that continued through a conſiderable ſpace with a continual change of direction, and ſometimes againſt a wind ſufficient to impel a ſhip at the rate of eight or ten miles an hour. I allow that we may occaſionally perceive a gentle flapping of the wing, but the effect of this is to prevent the body from deſcending, and very inadequate to the production of the motions above deſcribed.

Though I reject the inſtance of the ſkaiter, as proving any thing againſt my theory; I think we get a glimpſe of a power ſimilar to that with which I have endowed the bird, in the ſurpriſing feats of the vaulters, who exhibit on the ſtages in the vicinity of London. When I ſee a man ſpring over ſix horſes, with each a man on his back, and making a complete revolution while in the air, the effect appears to exceed all power of muſcular exertion. May not the minds of theſe vaulters, whilſt under the courſe of exerciſe and practice neceſſary to attain theſe powers, acquire the habit of acting upon the body in a certain degree ſimilar to what I ſuppoſe to exiſt in the bird; they ſeem to launch their bodies in the air with confidence, and to feel a conſciouſneſs that they can counteract the uſual effects of gravitation. However on this I do not lay any great ſtreſs; but be it as it may, the flight of the birds is to my appehenſion abſolutely inexplicable on the common received principles of mechanical motion. That mind is con-

concerned in ſome degree in all animal motion is univerſally admitted, and I only contend for a more extenſive influence of this principle than has hitherto been ſuppoſed to exiſt. If any one can give me a more ſatisfactory ſolution, my mind, not over tenacious of its own notions, is ready to admit it. Of the action of mind upon body we know very little; the preſent ſubject appears to me to afford a curious inſtance of the power of mind over the inertneſs of matter. If the idea be new, which I by no means pretend to maintain, it may be found worth proſecuting, and may lead to the extenſion of our knowledge on this ſubject; and the ſpeculation is at leaſt amuſing, curious, and innocent.

OBSERVATOR.

OF SOMNAMBULISTS.

From Smellie's 'Philoſophy of Natural Hiſtory,' vol. i:, 4to.

A remarkable phenomenon, which is ſometimes exhibited in ſleep, merits attention.—Some people, during ſleep, retain the faculties of ſeeing, hearing, ſpeaking, walking, laughing, crying, and, in general, doing almoſt every thing they are accuſtomed to perform when they are awake. Near thirty years ago, I had an opportunity of examining a ſtriking example of *ſomnambuliſm*. Within a mile of Edinburgh, I happened to reſide ſome time in a farmer's houſe. Mr Baird, my landlord, had a ſervant maid, whoſe name was Sarah. I was not long there, when I learned from the family, that Sarah, particularly after receiving an affront, or being angered, was accuſtomed to riſe in her ſleep, to go out, and to walk about the fields. My curioſity was excited; and I begged to be informed the firſt time that Sarah ſhould riſe in her ſleep. A few nights afterward, one of Mr Baird's ſons awaked me, and told me that Sarah had got out of bed. I immediately haſtened to the apartment where ſhe ſlept. When I arrived, Mr and Mrs Baird, one of their ſons, and a ſervant-maid, Sarah's companion, were preſent. Sarah was in the midſt of them. I took my ſeat by her. We began immediately to converſe. She anſwered any queſtions that were put to her pretty diſtinctly; but ſhe always miſtook the perſon who ſpoke, which gave us an opportunity of aſſuming any character within the circle of her acquaintance.

I knew that one of the farmer's ſervants, whoſe name was John Porteous, was a lover of her's; and therefore I addreſſed her in the ſtyle which I ſuppoſed John might have ſometimes done. From that moment, ſhe began to ſcold me, in the moſt peremptory manner, never again to ſpeak to her on that topic. The converſation was accordingly changed. I talked of her miſtreſs who was in the room, becauſe I knew that they had occaſional quarrels. Till now, I ſuſpected that the whole was a trick, but for what purpoſe I could not diſcover. Sarah, however, abuſed Mrs Baird in the harſheſt terms. She ſaid, but the other day, ſhe had been accuſed of ſtealing and drinking ſome bottles of ale; that her miſtreſs was ſuſpicious, cruel, and narrow-minded. As the miſtreſs of the houſe was preſent, when theſe and other opprobrious terms were uſed, I began to doubt my preconceived notion of impoſture; and therefore changed the object of my experiments and inquiries. I examined her countenance, and found that her eyes, though open, wild, and ſtaring, were not abſolutely fixed. I took a pin, and repeatedly pricked her arm; but not a muſcle moved, not a ſymptom of pain was diſcoverable. At laſt, ſhe became impatient to get out, and made ſeveral attempts to get out by the door; but that was prevented by the domeſtics. Perceiving her inability to force the door, ſhe made a ſudden ſpring at the window,

and

and endeavoured to throw herſelf over, which would have been fatal to her. To remove every ſuſpicion of impoſture, I deſired the people, with proper precautions to prevent harm, to try if ſhe would really precipitate herſelf from the window. A ſeemingly free acceſs was left for her eſcape, which ſhe perceived, and inſtantly darted with ſuch force and agility, that more than one half of her body was projected before her friends were aware. They, however, laid hold of her, and prevented the dreadful cataſtrophe. She was again prevailed upon, though with much reluctance, to ſit down. She ſoon reſumed her former calmneſs, and freely anſwered ſuch queſtions as were put to her. This ſcene continued for more than an hour. I was perfectly convinced, notwithſtanding my original ſuſpicions, that the woman was actuated by ſtrong and natural impulſes, and not by any deſign to deceive. I aſked if any of the attendants knew how to awaken her. A female ſervant replied, that ſhe did. She immediately, to my aſtoniſhment, laid hold of Sarah's wriſt, forcibly ſqueezed and rubbed the projecting bones, calling out at the ſame time, Sarah! Sarah! By this operation, Sarah awoke. She ſtared with amazement, looked around, and aſked, how ſo many people came to be in her apartment at ſo unſeaſonable an hour? After ſhe was completely awake, I aſked her, what was the cauſe of her reſtleſs and violent agitation? She replied, that ſhe had been dreaming that ſhe was purſued by a furious bull, who was every moment on the point of goring her.

A pretty ſimilar example afterward occurred. Mr Thomas Parkinſon, then a ſtudent of medicine in the univerſity of Edinburgh, was accuſtomed to talk and anſwer queſtions in his ſleep. This fact was known to his companions. To amuſe ourſelves, two of us went gently into his chamber while he was aſleep. We knew that he was in love with a young lady in Yorkſhire, the place of his nativity. We whiſpered her name repeatedly in his ear. He ſoon began to toſs about his hands, and to ſpeak incoherently. He gradually became more calm and recollected. His imagination took the direction we intended. He thought he was ſtationed under the lady's window, and repeatedly upbraided her for not appearing and ſpeaking to him as ſhe had ſo often done on former occaſions. At laſt, he became impatient, ſtarted up, laid hold of books, ſhoes, and every thing he could eaſily graſp. Thinking his miſtreſs was aſleep, he threw theſe articles againſt the oppoſite wall of his chamber. By what he ſaid, we learnt that his imaginary ſcene lay in a ſtreet, and that he was darting the books and ſhoes at the lady's window, in order to awake her. She, however, did not appear; and after tiring himſelf with frequent exertions, he went quietly into bed without wakening. His eyes were nearly ſhut; and although he freely converſed with us, did not ſeem to perceive that any perſon was preſent with him. Next day, we told him what had happened; but he ſaid, that he had only a faint recollection of dreaming about his miſtreſs.

In the French *Encyclopedie*, under the word *Noctambule* we have an account of a ſtudent of divinity, in the univerſity of Bourdeaux, who was accuſtomed to riſe in his ſleep, and to read and write without the uſe of his eyes. The fact is atteſted by the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, who thought it a phenomenon worthy of his attention. Leſt he ſhould have been deceived by the young man, he interpoſed an obſtacle between his eyes and the paper on which he was reading or writing. But he read and wrote in the ſame manner, and with equal accuracy, as if no ſuch obſtacle had exiſted.

A recent and authentic account of

a ſleep-walker, has been publiſhed on the continent, and now tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of ' A true and ſurpriſing acount of a Natural Sleep-walker, read before the Philoſophical Society of Lauſanne, in Swiſſerland, on the 6th of February 1788.' This ſleep-walker's name is Devand. At the time the following experiments and obſervations were made upon him under the directions of the ſociety; he was between thirteen and fourteen years of age. His conſtitution was weakly, and his nerves extremely irritable. The ſociety appointed three of its members, Dr Levade, and meſſieurs Reynier and Van Bercham, to make and report their obſervations on the ſleeping exertions and behaviour of this young man. Theſe gentlemen faithfully executed the injunctions they had received, and reported the reſults of the experiments they had made, and whatever authentic relations they procured from others.

His ordinary ſleep, which is ſeldom tranquil, when about to be ſeized with a fit of Somnambuliſm, is uncommonly diſturbed. While in this ſtate, he is affected with involuntary motions; his heart palpitates; his tongue faulters; and he alternately riſes up and lies down. On one of theſe occaſions, the gentlemen remarked, that he ſoon articulated more diſtinctly, roſe ſuddenly, and acted agreeably to the motives of the dream which then occupied his imagination. When too quickly roufed by a violent noiſe, or other cauſes, he is ſometimes ſeized with convulſions. After a paroxyſm, he complains of being fatigued; and, on ſome occaſions, is affected with ſickneſs and vomiting. At firſt, when he awoke, and found himſelf dreſſed, and in the midſt of ſeveral perſons, his ſurpriſe was great. But after the habit of ſomnambuliſm had continued for ſome time, recollection of ſimilar events, as formerly remarked with regard to diſagreeable dreams, gradually diminiſhed his ſurprize. The ideas of a boy at ſchool muſt neceſſarily be few and ſimple; and, of courſe, his dreams can admit of little variation. His daily verſions, cyphering, the church ſpires, and bells, but chiefly tales of ghoſts and hobgoblins, were the principal objects of his nightly viſions. When his mind was impreſſed with particular ideas before going to ſleep, which is nothing uncommon, theſe ideas frequently conſtituted or gave a direction to his dreams.

The gentlemen examinators mention ſome effects of electricity and magnetiſm upon our ſomnambuliſt. But, in the tranſlation (for I have not ſeen the original) the facts are obſcure, unintereſting, and ſometimes even contradictory; and therefore ſhall be paſſed over in ſilence.

Upon this curious ſubject, I muſt mention a ſingular converſation which happened in my houſe many years ago. The company conſiſted of the learned and ingenious Dr Reid, at preſent profeſſor of morals in the univerſity of Glaſgow, and the no leſs intelligent and ingenious Dr Blacklock, both well known in the literary world. Dr Reid, among many other queſtions, aſked Dr Blacklock, if he had any idea of light? Dr Blacklock replied, that he had not, being deprived of ſight ſo early as the ſecond year of his exiſtence. Dr Reid then aſked him, if there was any difference between his ideas of perſons and objects when he *dreamed*, and thoſe which were excited while awake? Dr Blacklock replied, that the difference was great; that he doubted whether he could communicate this difference in ſuch a manner to be underſtood; but that he would make the attempt. His anxiety to pleaſe and inform, made his explanation at firſt ſo obſcure and perplexed, that it could not be underſtood. This perplexity he perceived; retracted what he had ſaid as unintelligible; and, with ſome degree of exultation, exclaimed, ' Now I

have it.' He then told us, that, when awake, he could diſtinguiſh perſons three ways: the moſt perfect of which was that of hearing them ſpeak; but he could alſo recognize an acquaintance by feeling his head and ſhoulders. The third mode of diſtinction was by attending, without the aid of ſpeech, to the ſound and manner of breathing. He then proceeded, and told us, that, in ſleep, the objects which preſented themſelves to his imagination were more vivid, and that without the intervention of any of the three modes mentioned above, he had diſtinct perceptions of *diſtant objects*, both animated and inanimated. Being aſked by what means he thought theſe impreſſions were conveyed to him, he replied, that he imagined his body was united to theirs by a kind of *diſtant contact*, which was effected by the inſtrumentality of *threads* or *ſtrings*, which proceeded from their bodies to his own; and that mutual ideas were conveyed by *vibrations* of theſe *ſtrings*. The doctor could not come nearer to the point; for, though what he ſaid did not amount to ideas excited by actual *viſion*, yet the approach was aſtoniſhingly near.

*** Not many months ago, a young lady, between 20 and 30 years of age, gave the following account to the Editor, of her tranſactions during her ſleep the preceding night. She had a pretty large parcel to diſpatch by a carrier in the morning, which required her to riſe at an earlier hour than uſual. This parcel was to conſiſt, chiefly of clothes belonging to her ſiſters, which were lying in different rooms from where ſhe ſlept, and were under lock and key. The lady roſe during her ſleep; collected all the materials together; packed them up, and *ſewed them*; and went to bed again. She waked in the morning very cold, with a headach and ſore throat; and greatly ſurpriſed to find the work done, and, ſhe aſſured me, better done than if ſhe had been awake; but had not the ſmalleſt recollection of having riſen. She had gone to bed remarkably tired, after a long walk the day before, and conſiderable anxiety about having the parcel ready in time for diſpatching.

ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MAN AND BEASTS.

From Hender's Philoſophy of Hiſtory.

WITH great untruth has it been ſaid, in praiſe of the human ſpecies, that all the powers and capacities of every other are found in the higheſt perfection in man. Such a commendation is not only without proof, but inconſiſtent: for evidently, in ſuch a caſe, one power would deſtroy another, and the creature would abſolutely have no enjoyment of his exiſtence. How could man at one and the ſame time bloom like the flower, feel like the ſpider, build like the bee, ſuck like the butterfly: and alſo poſſeſs the muſcular ſtrength of the lion, the proboſcis of the elephant, and the art of the beaver? Does he poſſeſs, nay, does he comprehend, a ſingle one of theſe powers, with that intenſity, with which the animal enjoys and exerciſes it?

On the other hand, ſome have, I will not ſay degraded him to the rank of a beaſt, but altogether diveſted him of the character of his kind, and made him a degenerate animal, that, ſtriving after higher perfection, has totally loſt the originality of his ſpecies.

This is palpably contrary to truth, and the evidence of his natural hiſtory; he has obviouſly qualities, which no other animal poſſeſſes; and has performed actions, of which the good and the bad are truly his own. No beaſt devours his fellow from epicuriſm;

iſm; no beaſt murders his like in cold blood. No beaſt has language, as man has; and ſtill leſs writings, traditions, religion, and arbitrary rights and laws. Finally, no beaſt has the form, cloathing, habitation, arts, unfettered mode of life, unreſtrained propenſities, and fluctuating opinions, which diſtinguiſh almoſt every individual of mankind. We enquire not whether all this be to the advantage or detriment of our ſpecies; ſuffice it, that of our ſpecies it is the character. As every beaſt remains true, upon the whole, to the qualities of his kind, and we alone have made a divinity of will, not of neceſſity; this difference muſt be inveſtigated as a fact, for ſuch it inconteſtibly is. The other queſtions, how man came by this difference; and whether this difference be original, or adventitious and acquired, are of another kind, hiſtorical merely; and here the perfectibility or corruptibility, in which no beaſt has hitherto imitated him, muſt have pertained to the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of his ſpecies. Laying aſide all metaphyſics, we confine ourſelves to phyſiology and experience.

1. The form of man is upright; in this he is ſingular upon the earth. For though the bear has equally a broad foot, and ſtands erect when he fights: though the ape and the pigmy ſometimes walk or run in an erect poſture: ſtill to the human ſpecies alone is this poſition natural and conſtant. The foot of man is more firm and broad; he has a long great toe, while the ape has but a thumb: his heel too is on a level with the ſole of his foot. All the muſcles acting in this poſition are adapted to it. The calf of the leg is enlarged: the pelvis is drawn backward: the hips are ſpread outward from each other: the ſpine is leſs curved: the breaſt is widened: the ſhoulders have clavicles; the hands have fingers endued with the ſenſe of feeling; to crown the ſtructure the reciding head is exalted on the muſcles of the neck; man is a creature looking far above and around him.

It muſt be granted, however, that his mode of going erect is not ſo eſſential to man; that its oppoſite is as impoſſible for him as to fly. Not only is the contrary ſeen in children; but men, who have been brought up among beaſts, have proved it by experience. Eleven or twelve inſtances of this kind are known; and though they have not all been ſufficiently obſerved and deſcribed, yet ſome of them ſhow clearly, that the gait moſt incommodious to man is not impracticable to his pliable nature. His head, as well as his abdomen, lies ſomewhat forward; the body therefore can fall forward, as the head ſinks in ſleep. No dead body can ſtand upright: it is only by the combined exertion of innumerable actions, that our artificial mode of ſtanding and going becomes poſſible.

Thus it may eaſily be conceived, that, in acquiring the gait of quadrupeds, many limbs of the human body muſt change their forms and proportions to each other; as appears in the inſtances of wild men. The Iriſh boy, deſcribed by Tulpius, had a flat forehead, the occiput (hindhead) heightened, a wide bleating throat, a thick tongue, growing almoſt up to the palate, and the pit of the ſtomach drawn greatly inward; juſt as going on all fours muſt occaſion. The Flemiſh maiden, who walked erect, and ſtill retained ſo much of the feminine nature as to bedeck herſelf with a ſtraw apron, had a brown, thick, hairy ſkin, and long thick hair. The maiden found at Songi, in Champaign, had a dark countenance, ſtrong fingers, and long nails; and her thumbs in particular were ſo ſtrong and elongated, that ſhe ſwung herſelf with them from tree to tree like a ſquirrel. Her quick pace was not walking, but a flying trip, and gliding, in which the motions of

the feet were ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed. The tone of her voice was weak and ſlender, her cry piercing and frightful. She had uncommon ſtrength and agility; and was ſo difficult to be weaned from her uſual aliment, of raw and bleeding fleſh, fiſh, leaves and fruit, that ſhe not only endeavoured to eſcape, but fell into a dangerous illneſs, from which ſhe could be recovered only by ſucking warm blood, that pervaded her veſſels like a balſam. Her teeth fell out, and her nails dropped off, as ſhe accuſtomed herſelf to our food: inſupportable pains contracted her ſtomach and bowels, particularly the œſophagus (gullet) which became parched and dried up. Strong proofs how much the pliable nature of a human being, even though ſhe was born and for a time brought up among men, could habituate itſelf in a few years to the inferior mode of life of the beaſts, among which ſhe was placed by ſome unfortunate miſchance.

How could I delineate the hateful viſion of what man muſt have been, had he been condemned to the fate of being formed a beſtial fœtus in the womb of a quadruped; what powers would thereby have been ſtrengthened, what weakened; what muſt have been the gait, the education, the way of life, the corporeal ſtructure, of the human beaſt.—But away unhallowed and horrible image! Odious non-nature of natural man! In nature thou doſt not exiſt: my pen ſhall not delineate one of thy features. For

2. The upright poſture of man is natural to him alone; nay, it is the organiſm of the whole deſtination of the ſpecies, and its moſt diſtinguiſhing character.

No nation upon earth has been found walking on all fours: the moſt ſavage, however cloſely many of them border upon brute beaſts in their form and mode of living, walk erect. Even the men without feeling, of Diodorus, with other fabulous beings of the ancient and middle writers, go upon two legs: and I cannot comprehend how the human ſpecies, if it had poſſeſſed from nature the abject horizontal poſition, could ever have raiſed itſelf to a poſture of ſo much art and conſtraint. How much trouble has it coſt, to habituate the wild men, who have been found, to our food and manner of living! Yet theſe were not originally wild, but had become ſo by being a few years among the brutes The Eſquimaux maiden had ſome idea of her former ſtate and remains of the language and inſtincts of her native country: yet her reaſon lay bound up in brutality; ſhe had no remembrance of her journey, or of the whole of her wild ſtate. The others were not only deſtitute of language, but were in ſome meaſure for ever loſt to ſpeech. And would the human beaſt, had he been ages of ages in this abject ſtate, and formed to it by totally different proportions, a quadruped in his mother's womb, have left it of his own accord, and raiſed himſelf to an erect poſture? From the powers of a beaſt eternally pulling him back, would he have made himſelf man, and, before he became a man, invented human ſpeech? Had man been a four-footed animal, had he been ſo for thouſands of years, aſſuredly he would have remained ſo ſtill: and nothing but a miracle of new creation could have made him what he now is, and what alone all hiſtory and experience repreſents him to us.

Why then ſhould we embrace unproved, nay, totally inconſiſtent paradoxes, when the ſtructure of man, the hiſtory of his ſpecies, and, as I conceive, the whole analogy of terreſtrial organization, lead us to ſomething elſe? No creature, that we know, has departed from its original organization, and accommodated itſelf to another repugnant to it: it can operate only with the powers inherent in its organization, and nature is acquainted with ſufficient means to chain down every living creature to that ſtate, which ſhe had aſſigned it. In man every thing

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is adapted to the form he now bears; from this every thing in his hiſtory is explicable; without it nothing is capable of explanation; and ſince all the forms of the animal creation ſeem to converge to this, as to the exalted image of divinity, and the moſt elaborate and prime beauty of the earth; without which, as without the domination of man, our world would be deſtitute of its ſupreme ornament and crown: why ſhould we humble in the duſt this diadem of our deſtination, and obſtinately ſhut our eyes to that central point, in which all the radii of the circle ſeem to unite?

When our creative parent had fulfilled her labours, and exhauſted all the forms, that were poſſible on our earth, ſhe pauſed, and ſurveyed her works; and as ſhe ſaw that the earth ſtill wanted its principal ornament, its regent, and ſecond creator, ſhe took counſel with herſelf, combined together her forms, and out of all faſhioned her chief figure, human beauty. With maternal affection ſhe ſtretched forth her hand to the laſt creature of her art, and ſaid, 'Stand upon the earth! Left to thyſelf, thou hadſt been a beaſt, like unto other beaſts: but through my ſpecial aid and love, *walk erect*, and be of beaſts the God.'

With grateful eyes let us contemplate, in this hallowed act, the benefic, through which our race became a human ſpecies: with wonder ſhall we perceive, what new organiſm of powers commenced in the erect poſition of mankind, and how by it alone man was made a MAN.

MEMORABILIA FOR FEBRUARY.

THE *public events* of this month are not perhaps ſo numerous as important. Among thoſe of a melancholy nature, may be reckoned the beheading Mary queen of Scots, at Fotheringay-caſtle, and, what was in ſome degree connected with it, although at the diſtance of many years, the murder of lord Darnly, her firſt huſband. The concern ſhe had in that murder has ever been a diſputed point with hiſtorians. It is certain, ſhe afterwards married Bothwell, the murderer. In this month, the French entered Rome, and ſacked and ſpoiled it of its beauties, with all the ſavage rage of the ancient Goths. Lady Jane Gray and her huſband were beheaded on Tower-hill. Among the more pleaſing events of February, we have to mention, the proclamation of William and Mary, king and queen of England, and the conſequent completion of that bloodleſs revolution which reſtored our laws and liberties.—The moſt remarkable naval engagement of laſt century between Blake and admiral Van Tromp, in which the Engliſh deſtroyed eleven Dutch men of war. Parallel to this, or perhaps ſuperior in conſequences, and certainly ſo in intrepidity of attack, was the victory gained by Sir John Jervis, off Cape St Vincent. The inferiority of the Engliſh fleet in point of numbers, renders this one of the moſt decided proofs of the courage of Engliſh ſeamen that ever was, or probably ever will be given.

Among the *illuſtrious characters* born in this ſhort month, we find the names of Borlace, the learned hiſtorian of Cornwall; Bernouilli, one of the moſt celebrated philoſophers and mathematicians of the preſent century, he was a native of Groningen; and the very celebrated Charles v, emperor of Germany.

But our liſt of deaths is more copious; among the Engliſh, we find the pious Dr Hooper, biſhop of Gloucester, who was burnt before the door of his cathedral, in the reign of queen Mary: of the ancients, Cato, the patriot and philoſopher, put an end to his life on the 5th of this month; this 'Roman death,' as it has been called, has often been imitated by patriots

triots whether real or pretended, in moder nimes, particularly by many of the latter claſs in France. it is needleſs to add, that ſuicide is not the *privilege* of patriots more than other men, and that when unconnected with lunacy, it is without all excuſe, civil religious or moral.

Charles II. of England, died this month at Whitehall, and cloſed a reign, much of the conduct of which paved the way for the revolution. His character will not bear much encomium. It is certain he did not profit by his father's misfortunes. The profligacy of his court was extreme. The plays in particular of that reign are abominably licentious. Of men of leſſer note, yet eminent in their way, we may mention the poet Shenſtone, and the very celebrated Atterbury, biſhop of Rocheſter, who died in exile—In exile alſo, as it may well be called in Peterſburgh, died Staniſlaus Poniatowſky, the *laſt* king of Poland. —Sir William Blackſtone, the celebrated writer of 'the Commentaries of the Laws of England,' a work which has never been equalled, and is now of eſtabliſhed authority.—Philips, the poet, author of the 'Splendid Shilling,' and 'Cider,' both pieces of acknowledged merit.—Dr Richard Mead, one of the moſt eminent phyſicians; Moliere the celebrated French comic writer, and undoubtedly the firſt that nation has produced. His pieces have been more eaſily adapted to the Engliſh ſtage than thoſe of any other author.

Sir Joſhua Reynolds is to be added to this catalogue, univerſally acknowledged to be the moſt eminent painter of the Engliſh ſchool.—Evelyn, the natural philoſopher: Buchanan, the poet and hiſtorian of Scotland, and the beſt writer of pure and claſſical Latin, who has appeared ſince the Auguſtan age:—And, though laſt, not leaſt, Sir Chriſtopher Wren, the moſt illuſtrious architect of modern ages. Beſide his numerous edifices of leſſer note, the cathedral of St Paul's, the firſt proteſtant church in the world, will ever remain a monument of his genius and taſte. If a leſſer work, unrivalled for its beauties and the univerſal admiration of foreigners, is wanted, let the reader look at the church of St Stephen, Walbrook, unfortunately, however, placed behind that uninteiligible maſs the Manſion-houſe.

Among the violent deaths, there yet remain, the duke of Clarence, drowned in the Tower in a butt of malmſey; and Humphry, duke of Glouceſter, aſſaſſinated at St Edmondſbury, by the inſtigation of the cardinal Beaufort. Theſe events do not *ornament* our hiſtory. *Pudet nobis hæc dicere potuiſſe, et non potuiſſe rejelli.*

ARARIUS.

ON THE NECESSITY OF ACKNOWLEDGING OUR IGNORANCE.

SIR,

THE frank and candid acknowledgement of an ancient philoſopher when he ſaid "All I know is, that I know *nothing*," has often appeared to me as a precedent not abſolutely unworthy to be followed, even in ſuch a wiſe and knowing age as we have the happineſs to live in. There are plenty of people ready to boaſt of their knowledge, and to bring it before the public when they have a large ſtock on hand, or on other occaſions, to make a very little go a great way. We have plenty who are ready to inform us that they are the greateſt philoſophers, the greateſt hiſtorians, the greateſt poets, and the greateſt in all other branches of genius and knowledge; but we have not ſo many who are ready to acknowledge their ignorance, as the quantity of ignorance in actual exiſtence ſeems to demand.

I have often wiſhed, however, that men

men would be as willing to confeſs their ignorance, as well as to bring forward, in a prominent point of view, their knowledge; becauſe knowledge, where it exiſts, is ſure to be diſcovered without any extraordinary trouble, whereas ignorance requires ſo many ways to hide it, ſuch ſtrange ſhifts and expedients, ſuch evaſions, ſuch quirks and quibbles, that very few are enabled to conceal it without a much greater degree of trouble and expence than the article is fairly worth. It is, indeed, ſomewhat like telling a lie, which all *gentlemen* converſant in the art, will acknowledge to be far more difficult than the plain truth, and far more diſagreeable in its conſequences than a 'plain unvarniſhed tale.'

When I have ſeen any of my friends attempt to conceal their ignorance, I have pitied their ſtruggles, their painful efforts, and their hard pulls, yet without any deſire to help them, becauſe I conſider with what greater eaſe they might have at once confeſſed their ignorance, and there the matter would have ended. With a view, therefore, to prevent ſuch accidents hereafter, and bring ignorance, if I can, into vogue, I have taken up my pen, Mr Editor, and ſhall endeavour to point out ſome advantages which would attend a fair, frank, and open confeſſion of our ignorance in all caſes where we happen to be poſſeſſed of that commodity, and likewiſe ſome of the diſadvantages attending the contrary and too common practice.

It may be neceſſary to ſo great an undertaking, and, to ſome, ſo unpleaſing a taſk, that I previouſly ſtate certain privileges to which *ignorance* is entitled, and which I hope may in ſome degree tend to recommend it. In the firſt place, Ignorance is no *crime*. The law indeed ſays, '*Ignorantia neminem excuſat*,' that is, that ignorance is not to be admitted as an excuſe, but this, it muſt be obſerved, is in caſes where it is in a man's power to have acquired knowledge: for example, a man's being ignorant of the exiſtence of the income-tax will not excuſe him from paying it; and, indeed, a moſt incorrigible ignoramus he muſt be who is ignorant of this and many other things of the kind. Such an inſtance cannot well be ſuppoſed, when there are ſo many gentlemen in the neighbourhood whoſe buſineſs it is to inform people of ſuch matters, and who come round quarterly, or monthly, and are extremely obliging in their communications.

Ignorance, however, on the larger ſcale, and where a man is neither expected nor obliged to *know*, is certainly no crime, and if ten thouſand inſtances were to be given, there would not, perhaps, be a dozen out of the whole number, in which a man might not candidly confeſs his ignorance without incurring any moral guilt.

If ſuch are the privileges of ignorance, let us conſider the advantages of frankly confeſſing it. In the firſt place, if it *were* a crime, the criminality is completely done away by the confeſſion, which makes men ready enough to forgive. But another advantage ariſes, namely, that he who confeſſes his ignorance is in the readieſt way to get rid of ſo dull and troubleſome a companion, and gain knowledge in its ſtead. To be ſenſible of our defects is a ſtep towards having them ſupplied, as knowing our diſorder is a ſtep towards having it cured. A man who will not acknowledge his ignorance, and a patient who will not reveal his complaint, are equally beyond the reach of aſſiſtance.

In the ſecond place, a frank confeſſion of ignorance would prevent the ſhame which attends its being expoſed. There is a wonderful difference between the fate of an ignorant man and one who expoſes his ignorance. The former we ſeldom blame; he calls for no cenſure: he aims at no diſtinction: he claims no pre-eminence: he pretends to no more than he has: he does not elbow the wiſe. But the

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latter is univerſally deemed inſufferable, and every one has a fling at him. It is a great matter, therefore, to be content with our ignorance, and not attempt to paſs it upon other people for knowledge. Such falſe coin is ſure to be detected; every man is up in arms againſt ſuch impudent forgeries. To be ignorant, and confeſs it, is the ſafeſt way to avoid the ſhame and ridicule of expoſure, which ſtick to a man a much longer time than he is aware.

The reaſon why we have ſo many pretenders to knowledge, who are groſsly ignorant, is, that men take it into their heads that it is abſolutely neceſſary to know every thing. Now it unfortunately happens that the longeſt life is inſufficient to turn a man into an encyclopedia; and therefore the wiſeſt plan would be to limit our knowledge to ſuch few things as happen to be within our reach, and confeſs our ignorance in others: becauſe if we purſue this plan we ſhall get ample credit for our acquiſitions, without being blamed for unavoidable defects. We do not blame a merchant, becauſe he is unacquainted with ſurgery, nor a ſurgeon becauſe he knows little of commerce. But if theſe characters attempt to change places, we ſhall ſoon find enough of that ignorance which is generally concealed with great pain, and expoſed with great ſhame.

It appears to be a very ſimple propoſition, 'that it is not neceſſary to know every thing,' and yet it is one of the moſt difficult to perſuade men into. Hence we meet with politicians, for example, in alehouſes, who are more wiſe and knowing than are to be found in all the councils and courts of Europe, although when carefully examined, it will probably be found, that theſe ſage pot-politicians hardly know whether Europe be an iſland or a continent. They will arrange armies in columns, who never ſaw a greater body than a volunteer *corps*, and will ſend out the whole Britiſh navy upon a ſecret expedition, without having ever ſeen a larger veſſel than a London Trader. In theſe, and a hundred other caſes, that might be mentioned, the frank confeſſion of ignorance would be extremely uſeful to the parties, prevent them from unneceſſarily expoſing themſelves, prevent their drinking more than their purſes or conſtitutions could afford, and would give no uneaſineſs to any perſons, except, perhaps, the publican or the brewer.

If to ſome it ſhould appear harſh that I have adviſed them to a general confeſſion of ignorance, I would wiſh to modify the injunction, by ſaying that if they were only *now* and *then* to confeſs themſelves ignorant, there would be a great and viſible change for the better to moſt companies. And while I require this in caſes of real ignorance, I have no objection to their being moſt tenacious of what they do know. Obſtinacy in caſes of this kind may be excuſed, and it would be well if it occured on no occaſions of a different kind.

I would add, upon the whole of this ſubject, that ſtrange as it may ſeem, there are a great many things about which men employ themſelves, of our ignorance of which we need not be aſhamed, becauſe it does not ſignify a ſtraw, whether we know them or not. I ſhall tranſcribe the ſentiments of a learned and moral author on this topic, by way of concluſion. 'There are, indeed,' ſays he, 'many ſubjects of ſtudy which ſeem but remotely allied to uſeful knowledge, and of little importance to virtue or happineſs: nor is it eaſy to forbear ſome ſallies of merriment, or expreſſions of pity, when we ſee a man wrinkled with attention, and emaciated with ſolicitude, in the inveſtigation of queſtions, of which, without viſible inconvenience, the world may expire in ignorance.'

Such, indeed, Mr Editor, is a frequent occurrence, and if I were to

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be conſulted in many hundred ſuch caſes, where the generality of people ſtudy to be knowing, I would ſay, 'ſtick to your ignorance, and be not aſhamed of it in any caſe that does not concern your ſituation in life, your well-being your happineſs and your virtue.' I am, ſir, yours, &c.

SATIRICUS.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PROPER METHOD OF STUDY.

From Dr Campbell's Lectures on Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory.

IT is not my intention, ſays our learned author, either on this, or any other branch of theological ſcience, to recommend to your peruſal a multitude of books. Nothing could be eaſier, for one who has the honour to give leſſons in theology, than to preſent the ſtudents with a long catalogue of authors, who have, with ſome reputation, treated the various topics to be ſtudied. Ye might get in one half hour the titles of more volumes, than a whole lifetime would ſuffice you to read over. There are ſeveral reaſons which induce me to be rather ſparing on this article.

In the firſt place there is, in the practice of accumulating the names of books and authors, adding volume to volume, and folio to folio, ſomething very forbidding, which tends greatly to diſhearten the young learner. The labour appears immenſe, and the difficulties inſuperable. The toils he hath to undergo, and the obſtacles he hath to ſurmount, are all ſet full in his view; and that before he is made ſo ſenſible of the charms of the purſuit, as to be heartily engaged in it, and animated to perſiſt in defiance of every thing that might diſcourage or oppoſe him. The conduct of nature, in this reſpect, is more worthy of imitation. She commonly renders the firſt difficulty a ſereen, by which the ſecond is concealed from ſight; the ſecond anſwers the ſame purpoſe to the third, and ſo forward. In travelling over a ridge of mountains like the Alps or Pyrennees, every ſummit the traveller approaches he imagines to be the higheſt; and it is not till he has reached it, that he is ſenſible he muſt climb ſtill higher. And this is what will happen to him for ſeveral ſucceſſive times. Now there is this advantage in this gradual opening of the ſcene, that the time he has already ſpent, and the difficulties he has already overcome, prove the moſt cogent arguments with him, not to loſe his paſt time and labour by giving over the purſuit. The farther he advances, theſe arguments have the greater weight. And thus, by the help of a growing zeal and perſeverance, a man will, with honour and advantage, come off victorious in an enterprize, which, had he ſeen from the beginning all its difficulty, he had never undertaken.

A ſecond reaſon for uſing this method is, the great variety of ſtudies in which the divine, as ye have ſeen, muſt be neceſſarily converſant. None of them can, without hurt both to his reputation and uſefulneſs, be entirely neglected. Now the greater diverſity there is of ſubjects in this ſtudy, the more the inquiry into each ought to be ſimplified, that the young ſtudent may neither be perplexed, and, as it were, loſe himſelf in a cumberſome multiplicity: nor ſo attach himſelf to one part of the ſtudy as to ſwallow up all the time that ſhould be employed on the other parts. He ought to be introduced into every province of this extenſive country: the moſt patent roads ſhould be pointed out to him: a perfect acquaintance with each muſt be the work of time, and the fruit of his own aſſiduity and labour. Or dropping the metaphor: of every ſeparate article of this ſtudy, he ought, in the ſchools of divinity, to acquire ſome general notions: but to attain a thorough proficiency in them all,

is rather the buſineſs of a lifetime, than the effect of a few years application. It is, indeed, in this, as in every other art or ſcience, the foundation only is laid at ſchool, the manner of building is indicated: the ſcholar may afterward rear the ſuperſtructure as high as his diſpoſition and opportunities ſhall enable him. Now it is my deſign here, rather to lay a wide foundation, on which a goodly edifice may in time be erected: though I ſhould make but little or no progreſs in raiſing the walls, than on a narrow bottom, to advance farther in the building: becauſe in this caſe, the fabric, tho' it be raiſed ever ſo high, muſt, by reaſon of the ſtraitened limits to which its foundation does neceſſarily confine it, be both mean and incommodious.

I ſhall aſſign a third reaſon for not harraſſing my hearers, by recommending a great variety of books. Young people are but too apt to imagine, that learning and reading are ſynonymous terms, and that a man is always the more learned the more he has read. Nothing can be a more egregious miſtake. Food is neceſſary for the ſupport of the body, and without a competency of it, we could not enjoy either vigour or health; but we ſhould not ſuſpect him to be over-ſtocked with wiſdom, who ſhould conclude from this concetion, that the more a man eats the more healthy and vigorous he muſt be. We know from experience, that when a certain proportion is exceeded, thoſe corporeal endowments, health and ſtrength, are impaired by the very means, which, if uſed in moderation, would have increaſed them. The ſame thing exactly holds with reading, which is the food of the mind. The memory may be loaded and encumbered in the one caſe, as the ſtomach is in the other. And in either caſe, if we take more than we can digeſt, it can never turn to good account. There have been inſtances of ſuch *bellouues librorum*, ſuch book gluttons, as very much reſembled the lean kine in Pharaoh's viſion, which, when they had devoured the fat and well-favoured kine, were themſelves as lean and ill-favoured as before. It is indeed neceſſary that we accuſtom ourſelves to read: but it is likewiſe neceſſary, and much more difficult, that we accuſtom ourſelves to reflect. There ought to be fixed times for both exerciſes: but to the laſt, particularly, our beſt endeavours ought frequently to be directed. And for this purpoſe, I know no better helps, than to be obliged, ſometimes by converſation, ſometimes by compoſing, to expreſs our ſentiments on the ſubjects of which we read. The uſe which the ſtudent makes of the food of the mind, bears the cloſeſt analogy to the uſe which the ruminating animals make of their paſture. They read it, and enjoy it a ſecond time to much greater advantage than the firſt. Reſemble them in this particular: on whatever ye find inſtructive often ruminate.

The fourth and laſt reaſon I ſhall mention is, when a number of books on every topic are recommended, the ſtudent finds it, I ſay not difficult, but impoſſible, to get them all, or even the greater part of them. Fruitleſs endeavours, often repeated, will in time extinguiſh the greateſt ardour: and from finding part of our taſk impracticable, we are but too apt to grow careleſs about the whole. A few directions exactly followed are more conducive to our improvement, than a much greater number little minded.

ON THE ORIGIN OF WIGS AND HAIR POWDER.

THE Greeks and Romans uſed falſe hair; and had likewiſe a kind of hair-powder.—Hannibal wore falſe hair.—Lampridius gives a deſcription of the Emperor Commodus's wig, which was powdered with gold-duſt, and anointed with ointments of an agreeable colour, that the duſt might adhere

adhere to it. It appears not improbable, that even then, not merely a vain affectation of pomp, but the effects of too active a gallantry (though trifling when compared with thofe of modern times) may have given occafion to this invention. For farther information on this fubject, I refer the reader to the learned commentators on the fatyrical exclamation of Cæfar's foldiers, during his triumphal entry into Rome: '*Urbani, fervate uxorem, mœchum calvum adducimus!*' Henry III. King of France, loft his hair through the then yet new-fafhioned venereal difeafe (although, indeed, his grandfather had already been infected with it); he had therefore one of the caps, then ufually worn, covered with falfe hair: but yet he ventured not to take off his hat in the prefence of his queen or of the foreign ambaffadors, for fear they fhould obferve his lofs. In 1518, John Duke of Saxony, ordered his head-bailiff at Cobourg, to procure for him from Nuremberg a handfome falfe head of hair; 'but fecretly (wrote he), that it may not be known that it is for us; and let it be curled, and fo contrived that it may be put on the head without being obferved.'—But in the reign of Louis XIV. when polite manners and gallantry had become more general, men more fenfibly affected with cold, &c. and the number of bald-heads greater; they were no longer afhamed of the caps covered with falfe hair; many people even, who had not loft their hair, wore them from an affectation of fafhionable gallantry, from the effects of which they were really exempt. This gave rife to the idea of weaving hair into a linen cloth, and likewife into fringes, which were ufed for fome time under *Milan Points*. Thefe fringes or laces were fewed in rows to the plain caps, which were now made of a thiner fheep-fkin, and this head-drefs was called, by the French *peruque*, by the Germans *parucke*, by the Englifh *periwig*, contracted into wig.—At laft they invented a kind of three-thread treffes, which were fewed to ribbons or other ftuffs; thefe they then ftretched out, and joined together on blocks cut into the fhape of the head. This is the origin of our prefent wigs, the making, repairing, and dreffing of which furnifhes employment to fo vaft a number of people. The firft who wore a *peruque*, was an *abbe* named *La Riviere*. At one time this ornament of the head was fo thick, fo loaded with hair, fo long, that it hung as low as the waift. A perfon who happened to have a lean vifage, was quite hid in this cloud of hair. The fore-part of the wig was likewife worn very high; in France, this was called *devant a la Fontagne*, from the marquis of that name, who had brought it into vogue in the time of Louis XIV.—A certain *Fervais* at laft found out the art of frizzing the wigs; by which means, with a fmall quantity of hair they appear fuller than they could be with even a much greater. The bag wigs firft came into fafhion during the regency of the Duke of Orleans, and thence obtained the name of *peruques a la regence*. The Emperor Charles VI. would allow no one to be admitted into his prefence without a wig with two tails. Of a more modern date than wigs is our prefent hair-powder. In the reign of Louis XIV. it was not yet in general ufe; and that king at firft difliked the fafhion of wearing it. The players are faid to have firft powdered their hair: but for a long time after the introduction of that practice, always combed the powder out again, upon their return from the theatre.

ARABIAN MANNER OF BAKING BREAD.

From Jackfon's Journey from India.

I WAS much amufed by obferving the dexterity of the Arab women in baking their bread. They have a fmall place built with clay, between

two and three feet high, having a hole at the bottom, for the convenience of drawing out the aſhes, ſomething ſimilar to that of a lime-kiln. The oven, (which I think is the moſt proper name for this place) is uſually about fifteen inches wide, at top, and gradually grows wider to the bottom. It is heated with wood, and when ſufficiently hot, and perfectly clear from ſmoke, having nothing but clear embers at bottom (which continue to reflect great heat) they prepare the dough in a large bowl, and mould the cakes to the deſired ſize on a board or ſtone placed near the oven. After they have kneaded the cake to a proper conſiſtence, they pat it a little, then toſs it about with great dexterity in one hand, till it is as thin as they chooſe to make it. They then wet one ſide of it with water, at the ſame time wetting the hand and arm with which they put it into the oven. The wet ſide of the cake adheres faſt to the ſide of the oven till it is ſufficiently baked, when, if not paid proper attention to, it would fall down among the embers. If they were not exceedingly quick at this work, the heat of the oven would burn the ſkin from off their hands and arms; but with ſuch amazing dexterity do they perform it, that one woman will continue keeping three or four cakes at a time in the oven till ſhe has done baking. This mode, let me add, does not require half the fuel that is made uſe of in Europe.

USEFUL HINTS AND DISCOVERIES.

Extracted from the Journal de Phyſique.

On the Method of Extracting the different kinds of Turpentine.

THE Pine from which theſe ſquaſtoncea are extracted, is never fit for this operation till it be thirty years of age. The extraction is begun in February and continued to the end of October. Inciſions are made with an hatchet, beginning at the foot of the tree on one ſide, and riſing ſucceſſively: they are repeated once or twice a week, the ſize about one finger's breadth acroſs, and three or four inches long. During the four years in which it is continued, the inciſions have riſen to about eight or nine feet. Then the inciſions are begun on the other ſide, and during this time the old ones fill up, and may be again opened after ſome years, ſo that a tree on a good ſoil, and well managed, may yield turpentine for a century. At the bottom of the tree, under the inciſion, a hole is dug in the ground to receive the reſin that flows from the tree. This reſin is called *terebinthine brut*, is of a milky colour, and is that which flows during the three ſummer months; it requires further purification.

The winter crop is called *barras galipot*, or white reſin: it ſticks to the bark of the tree, when the heat has not been ſtrong enough to let it fall into the trough in the ground. It is ſcraped off with iron knives.

Purification of the Turpentine.

This is done in two methods: that at Bayonne is to have a copper cauldron, which will hold 300 lb. of materials, fixed over a fire, and the flame circulating at the bottom of the copper. The turpentine is put in, melted with a gentle heat, and when liquid is ſtrained through a ſtraw-baſket made for the purpoſe, and ſtretched over a barrel, which receives the ſtrained turpentine. This purification gives it a golden colour, and may be performed all times of the year.

The ſecond manner, which is practiſed only in the mountain of De Buch, near Bourdeaux, conſiſts in having a large tub, ſeven or eight feet ſquare, and pierced with ſmall holes at the bottom, ſet upon another tub to catch the liquor. This is expoſed to the hotteſt ſun for the whole day, filled two-thirds with turpentine, which as it melts falls through the holes, and

leaves

leaves the impurities behind. This pure turpentine is less golden-coloured, and is much more esteemed than the other. This process can only be done in the summer.

Oil of Turpentine.

An alembic, with a worm like what is used by the distillers, is employed here. It generally contains 250 lb of turpentine, which is boiled gently, and kept at the boiling point till no more oil passes, when the fire is damped. This generally gives 60 lb. of oil, and the operation lasts one day.

Yellow Rosin.

This is made with galipot, and in the same vessel. It is liquefied with a gentle heat, being often stirred to prevent burning, and evaporated to the requisite consistence, and passed through a straw filter. It is then black, but this colour is taken away by adding to it eight or ten pints of boiling water, and stirring it constantly till cold. It acquires by this operation the fine yellow colour for which it is so much esteemed. It is then cast into moulds for sale.

Black Pitch.

This is made out of the refuse of rosin and turpentine, such as will not pass through the straw filter, and the cuttings around the incisions on the tree. These materials are put into a boiler six or seven feet in circumference, and eight or ten high. Fuel is laid around the top, and the materials as they melt flow through a channel cut in the fireplace into a tub half filled with water. It is at that time very red, and almost liquid. To give this a proper consistence, it is put in a cauldron, placed in a furnace, and boiled down in the same manner as rosin, but it requires much less precaution and double the time. It is then poured into moulds of earth, and forms the best kind of black pitch, *poix noire.*

Method of preparing Cheese in the Lodesan, commonly called Parmesan Cheese.

THE size of these cheeses varies from 60 to 180 lb. depending considerably on the number of cows in each dairy.

During the heat of summer cheese is made every day, but in the cooler months milk will keep longer, and cheese is made every other day. The summer cheese, which is the best, is made of the evening milk, after having been skimmed in the morning and at noon; mixed with the morning milk after having been skimmed at noon. Both kinds of milk are poured together into a copper cauldron, capable of holding about 130 gallons, of the shape of an inverted bell, and suspended on the arm of a lever, so as to be moved off and on the fire at pleasure. In this cauldron the milk is gradually heated to the temperature of about 120 degrees; it is now removed from the fire, and kept quiet for five or six minutes. When all internal motion has ceased, the *rennet* is added: this substance is composed of the stomach of a calf, fermented together with wheaten meal and salt; and the method of using it is to tie a piece of the size of a hazle nut in a rag, and steep it in the milk, squeezing it from time to time. In a short time a sufficient quantity of rennet passes through the rag into the milk, which is now to be well stirred, and afterwards left at rest to coagulate.

In about an hour the coagulation is complete, and then the milk is again put over the fire, and raised to a temperature of about 145 degrees. During all the time it is heating, the mass is briskly agitated till the curd separates in small lumps; part of the whey is then taken out, and a few pinches of saffron are added to the remainder in order to colour it. When the curd is thus broken sufficiently small, nearly the whole of the whey is taken out, and two pails-full of cold water are poured in; the temperature is thus lowered, so as to enable the dairy-man to collect the curd by passing a cloth beneath it, and gathering it up at the cor-

corners: the curd is now preſſed into a frame of wood, like a buſhel without a bottom, placed on a ſolid table, and covered by a round piece of wood with a great ſtone at the top. In the courſe of the night it cools, aſſumes a firm conſiſtence, and parts with the whey: the next day one ſide is rubbed with ſalt, and the ſucceeding day the cheeſe is turned, and the other ſide is rubbed in the ſame manner: this alternate ſalting of each ſide is practiſed for about forty days. After this period, the outer cruſt of the cheeſe is pared off, the freſh ſurface is varniſhed with linſeed oil, the convex ſide is coloured red, and the cheeſe is fit for ſale.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

SIR,

YOU lately gave an account in your miſcellany, of the late learned and worthy Dean Tucker, Dean of Glouceſter, and a liſt of his writings. Some years ago, (1784), he publiſhed a ſet of propoſals which I find are not ſo generally known as I think they ſhould be, and of which I herewith tranſmit a copy for inſertion in your firſt number, which will oblige,

CRITO.

Subjects and Diſſertations and Premiums, to be offered to the Graduate Students of the Univerſities of England and Scotland.

IT is a juſt complaint, and hath been of long ſtanding, that the general tenor of academical ſtudies hath very little tendency towards inſtructing the riſing generation in the civil, political, and commercial intereſts of their own country, when they come abroad into the world, and are to act ſome part or other on the ſtage of life. On the contrary, it is obſervable, that a young gentleman may even excel in almoſt every one of thoſe exerciſes which are either required of him for his public degrees, or preſcribed by his tutor for private inſtruction, and yet be very deficient in that kind of knowledge which is neceſſary to form the public-ſpirited citizen, the enlightened ſenator, and the real patriot: and what is ſtill worſe, the greater his *zeal*, without ſuch knowledge, the more liable he will be to purſue wrong meaſures, injurious to his country and to mankind, though with the beſt intentions of doing what is right.

To remedy theſe inconveniences, at leaſt in part, the following propoſals are humbly ſubmitted to the judgment of the public. The author himſelf hath been long of the opinion, that the ſubjects here propoſed, or ſome others of the ſame tendency, are proper for inſtructing young men of letters of every denomination, in the real intereſts and true policy, not only of Great Britain, but of all the nations upon earth. But as he makes no pretenſions to infallibility, he ſhall await the public deciſion with that deference and reſpect which duty enjoins and decency requires; happy in the conſciouſneſs of his own mind, of having meant the *beſt*.

Firſt Subject.

Whether a ſtrict attention to Agriculture and Manufactures, and to their inſeparable concomitant, a free, extended, and national Commerce, can be made compatible with a ſpirit of Heroiſm, and great Military Glory? And in caſe there ſhould be found an incongruity between them, Which ought to have the preference?—Conqueſt, colonies, and a widely extended empire? or, domeſtic induſtry and frugality, a free trade, and great internal population?

Second Subject.

What *kind* and *quantity* of military force ſeem to be ſufficient for guarding from foreign invaſion, or domeſtic robbery, the agriculture and manufactures, the ſhipping and commerce of *that particular country*, whoſe ſole aim is to excel in the arts of peace, without attempting to give laws to other nations,

or

or to exult over them either by land or sea, and not pretending to regulate the balance of power between the contending nations of the world?

Third Subject.

Whether an examination into the nature of the above subjects doth or doth not lead to conclusions favourable to the interests of this country in particular, and to the good of mankind in general? And if it should be found to be favourable to the good of *all*, Whether a system of politics and commerce built on such a plan would promote or discourage the employing of *slaves*, instead of hiring *freemen*, for the purposes of agriculture, manufacture, and national commerce?

Fourth Subject.

In case it should be found, on due examination, that slavery is repugnant not only to humanity, but also to the general interests of agriculture, manufactures, and national commerce—Quere, What methods ought to be devised for supplying Great Britain with sugars, and other productions of the West Indies, and which are now raised by slaves only? and, How might such a benevolent scheme be carried into execution by gentle means, sure and progressive in their operations, but free from violence?

Fifth Subject.

Supposing such alterations in the commercial system as above suggested, and accompanied by the *revocation of all monopolies whatever*—would such a scheme, if put in practice, be attended with any additional expence to Government?—Would it obstruct the collection of the several duties and taxes at home? or, Would it be any impediment to the protection of our trade abroad? and, above all, Would it tend to the accumulation or diminution of the burden of the present enormous national debt?

PROPOSED.

That 200l. be raised by subscription for giving premiums to the *graduate* Students of the Universities of England and Scotland, for the best English dissertations (if deserving to appear in print) on *one* or more of the above mentioned subjects, namely,

In England.	L.	L.
To the University of Oxford, for the best dissertation -	30	
For the second best, - -	20	
		— 50
To the University of Cambridge, for the best - - -	30	
For the second best - - -	20	
		— 50
		100

In Scotland.		
To the University of Edinburgh, for the best, - - -	15	
For the second best, - -	10	
		— 25
To the University of Glasgow, for the best - - -	15	
For the second best, - -	10	
		— 25
To the University of St Andrew's, for the best -	15	
For the second best - -	10	
		— 25
To the Universities of Old and New Aberdeen, for the best	15	
For the second best - -	10	
		— 25
		L. 100

N. B. The Proposer of the above scheme will himself give twenty pounds towards it; and will engage for twenty more from his friends, if found necessary. Moreover, he will continue the same subscription for life, if the public voice should be favourable for the continuance of such a set of annual premiums.

REMARKS ON THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE LION,

In a letter written by R. Bradley, F. R. S. and Professor of Botany in the University of Cambridge, dated August 8, 1727.

THE accounts we have lately had in the newspapers, that the old lioness in the Tower of London had whelped her fourth litter of young lions, gave me

me the curiosity of enquiring into some particulars concerning the lion, which hitherto no natural historian which I have read has mentioned; I suppose, because they had no opportunity of observing them: for I do not find that it is common for lions to breed when they are under confinement: and few would run the hazard of visiting the den of a wild lioness when she had whelps, to satisfy their curiosity. The principal points I wanted to be informed of were, how long the lion was coming to his full growth; how long the lioness went with young; how many they generally brought at a litter, whether they could see as soon as whelped; and how long they lived.

In answer to these queries, I find now in the Tower a lion and lioness, that were whelps of the first litter in September 1725, as the keepers inform me: these I saw about Christmas in the same year, and they were then about twenty-three inches long, without measuring the tail. Their colour was then like that of box wood, a little worn, and grizzled, and marked with blackish spots: they are now about three feet long, and seem to want a third part of the bigness of the old ones. These, next month, will be two years old: they have lost their grizzled marks, and are now all of the box colour. There were five of the first litter; but I observe now but two alive, which are both together in a den; one a male, the other a female. It is observable, that the beard or long hair about the head of the male begins now to grow, and distinguishes him in his coat from the female, which is all smooth coated.

The sire and dam of these lions were presented to his late Majesty, and sent to the Tower about eight years ago: they were then young lions, and were not full grown: but being then about the bigness of these of the first litter, as I have now mentioned them, were supposed to be about two years old, and may therefore be now computed to be about ten. These which we may now call the old ones, are distinguished in the Tower by the names of Jack and Grizzle; which I the rather take notice of, that hereafter their age may be the better known.

We may observe, with respect to the time of their arriving at their full perfection, that they were not ripe for coupling till they were about eight years old; but whether they couple sooner when they are wild is a query. The time of pregnancy, or of the lioness going with young, as the keepers inform me, is four months.

Since the first litter, the same pair have had three others; but I do not observe there are any of the second litter remaining, though there are commonly five at a birth. Of the third litter there is a lioness alive: she was whelped about eleven months ago, and is kept loose in a large room by herself: she seems to be as tame as a dog, or any other familiar creature. The fourth litter was whelped on the 18th of July this year 1727. At a fortnight old they were very brisk, and could walk with ease about the room, which is different from the nature of cats and dogs, which can hardly move the first month: and what yet is more remarkable in young lions, they see the first day they are whelped. So that, though lions have been generally supposed to be of the cat-kind, these are instances that they are not, although their claws are cased. Neither is the lion of the dog-kind, as some have judged; for the situation and manner of the claws are very different in one and the other; and besides, a lion will prey upon a dog, which I suppose it would not, if there was any affinity between the dog and the lion: for I know, by experience, that an African Tyger will not prey upon a cat, though it will kill a cat by playing with it: which, I suppose, is because of the near relation which these creatures bear to one another in their natural disposition; and it is a question whether the killing of the cat is with design.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THE incloſed compoſition will gratify your claſſical readers. I got it from the Author, along with a letter from a moſt eminent ſcholar, the late Dr David Doig of Stirling, well known for his abilities as a Latin poet, who thus expreſſes himſelf concerning its merits. "Your jeu d'eſprit of *The Monk and the Miller's Wife*, is indeed a maſterly performance, and has afforded me moſt exquiſite pleaſure. What I moſt admire, is the happy elegance of your diction, and your chaſte and natural uſe of the beſt Latin phraſeology, in a work of this complection. I thank you for communicating it to me. It is like a beautiful and verdant ſpot in a deſert, to a wretched, weary pilgrim," &c. &c.

I am, Sir, yours, &c. A. B.

ALLAN RAMSAY'S TALE OF THE MONK AND THE MILLER'S WIFE.

POTORES inclyti, divini
Qui ſcitis beneficia vini,
Quos riſus juvat dum bibatis,
Fabellam lepidam audiatis.
In Fifâ molitor degebat
Vitam, qui conjugem habebat
Laſcivam, ſponſi quæ conſortem
Admiſit ſacerdotem ſortem.
Alberto pater hic benignè
Officium præſtitit inſigne;
Cum ſciret ei cerviſiam bonam,
Sæpius ſe dedit combibonem;
Et mirum dictu, hic Albertus,
Pollenti ſpiritu refertus,
Dum ſanctum patrem honorabat,
Ebrius et ipſe prædicabat.
Sic cuique erat ſatisfactum;
Sponſæ, marito, opus actum;
Hic dum piſtrino ſeſe præbet
Alter parochiæ incumbebat;
Et *Bella*, alacris ubique,
Se commodam dedit utrique.

Umbræ quum lucibus æquales
Et ferie redeunt autumnales,
Redibat forte domum patris
Alumnus ſoleis almæ matris
Andreæ ſancti; dies cadit,
Nox polum tenebris invadit;
Digitum nequimus cum ſpectare,
Horrendum foris eſt cubare.
Fors erat molam tunc audire
Quæ grato ſonitu lenire:
Mola hæc erat bene nota
Alberti, ædes nec remota.
Alumnus intrat, cui cognomen
Jacobus, fauſtum quod ſit omen!

Nunc Muſa, pergas enarrare
Fabellam lepidè, preclarè,
Gratam, dum reſtent molendina,
Vel Scotis vivitur farina.
Intrat Jacobus, nec ignotus
Alberto, quippe haud remotus

NOW lend your lugs, ye benders fine,
Wha ken the benefit of wine,
And you wha laughing ſcud brown ale,
Leave Jinks a wee, and hear a tale.
An honeſt miller winn'd in Fife,
That had a young and wanton wife,
Wha ſometimes thol'd the pariſh prieſt
To make her man a twa horn'd beaſt.
He paid right mony viſits till her;
And to keep in wi' Hab the miller,
He 'ndeavour'd aft to mak him happy,
Whene'er he kent the ale was nappy.
Sic condeſcenſion in a paſtor
Knit Halbert's love to him the faſter,
And by his converſe, troth 'tis true,
Hab learn'd to preach when he was fou.
Thus all the three were wonder pleas'd,
The wife well ſerv'd, the man well eas'd;
This ground his corns, and that did cheriſh
Himſelf with dining round the pariſh;
Beſs, the goodwife, thought it nae ſkaith,
Since ſhe was fit to ſerve them baith.
When equal is the night and day,
And Ceres gives the ſchools the play,
A youth ſprung frae a gentle *pater*,
Bred at Saint Andrew's *alma mater*,
Ae day gawn' hameward, it fell late,
And him benighted by the gate;
To lye without, pit-mirk did ſhore him,
He coudna ſee his thumb before him:
But, clack—clack—clack, he heard a mill,
Whilk led him by the lugs theretill.
To tak the thread of tale alang,
This mill to Halbert did belang;
Nor leſs this note your notice claims,
The ſcholar's name was Maſter James.
Now, ſmiling muſe, the prelude paſt,
Smoothly relate a tale ſhall laſt
As lang as Alps and Grampian hills,
As lang as wind or water-mills. (him;
In enter'd James, Hab ſaw and kend
And offer'd kindly to befriend him

A villula qua habitabat
Pater, hic operam navabat.
Sic hoſpiti benignum vultum
Præbebat, gratulatus multum;
Et dixit tunc adoleſcenti,
Grates quam plurimas reddenti,
" I, mi amice, petas ædes
" Qua juxta ſitas ducant pedes.
" Oportet morer hic pauliſper,
" Sed te conveniam tantiſper;
" Interea hîc dum opus actum
" Ibis at focum calefactum,
" Dum redeam, iſthic tempus teres
" Et cum uxore colloqueris."
Jacobus annuit contentus,
Et ædes quærit nihil lentus;
Huc ducit luminis ſcintilla
Fulgens ex tenui favilla;
Occluſas fores dum pulſabat,
Ab intus *Bella* vocitabat;
" Inſultus quiſnam peregrinus
" Fores ſic turbat ſerotinus?"
Jacobus comiter reſpondens,
Amicum nec ignotum ſpondens,
Quod accidit enarrat clarè:
At Bella: " licet ignorare
" An falſa dicas ſive vera;
" Fures abundant nocte ſerâ;
" Sic nolo ædes aperiri:
" Quum tamen poſſis non mentiri,
" Vicinum horreum intres ſtatim,
" Fn clavem; paleæ eſt affatim;
" Hic cubes; bene eſt, profecto,
" Cui ſtramen bonum ſit pro lecto."

Hoſpes, quum melius non videtur,
In horreum pergit, ut jubetur:
Confertum ſtramen vidit purum
In altam molem juxta murum:
Aſcendit cumulum ſublimem,
Et circumſpectans vidit rimam,
Per quam licebat clam tueri
In æde quicquid eſt videri.

Monſtrum horrendum, turpe viſu,
At nec ſpectandum abſque riſu;
En ſacerdotem fœdo more
Conſociatum cum uxore.
Non decet amplius enarrari:
Quod inhoneſtum eſt profari:
Ad finem pone rem perductam;
Jacobus vidit menſam ſtructam,

With ſic good cheer as he cou'd make
Baith for his ain and father's ſake.
The ſcholar thought himſelf right ſped,
And gave him thanks in terms wiel bred.
Quoth Hab, I canna leave my mill
As yet;——but ſtep ye weſt the kill
A bow-ſhot, and ye'll find my hame:
Gae warm ye, and crack with our dame,
'Till I ſet aff the mill, ſyne wie
Shall tak' what Beſſy has to gi'e.
James, in return, what's handſome ſaid,
O'er lang to tell, and aff he gade.
Out of the houſe ſome light did ſhine,
Which led him till't as with a line:
Arriv'd, he knock'd, for doors were ſteekit;
Straight thro' a window Beſſy keekit,
And cries, " Wha's that gies folk a fright
At ſic untimeous time of night?"
James with good humour, maiſt diſcreetly,
Tald her his circumſtance completely.
" I dinna ken ye," quoth the wife,
" And up and down the thieves are rife;
Within my lane, I'm but a woman,
Sae I'll unbar my door to no man;
But ſince 'tis very like, my dow,
That a' y'ere telling may be true,
Hae, there's a key, gang in your way
At the neiſt door there's braw ait ſtrae;
Streek down upon't, my lad, and learn
They're no ill lodg'd that get a barn."
Thus, after meikle clitter clatter,
James fand he coudna mend the matter;
And ſince it might nae better be,
With reſignation took the key,
Unlockt the barn—clam up the mou,
Where was an opening near the hou,
Through whilk he ſaw a glent of light,
That gave diverſion to his ſight:
By this he quickly could diſcern
A thin wa' ſep'rate houſe and barn,
And thro' this rive was in the wa',
All done within the houſe he ſaw:
He ſaw (what ought not to be ſeen,
And ſcarce gave credit to his e'en)
The pariſh prieſt of reverend fame
In active courtſhip with the dame—
To lengthen out deſcription here,
Would but offend the modeſt ear,
And beet the lewder youthfu' flame
That we by ſatire ſtrive to tame.
Suppoſe the wicked action o'er,
And James continuing ſtill to glowr;

Quam deſuper citò repoſtam
Gallinam ſpectat bene toſtam,
Et Amphorâ plus unâ bonâ
Cerviſiæ plenâ ex caupona.

Aſt O fortunam infelicem!
Quum jam ſacerdos in cervicem
Pulli tenelli cultrum dedit
En molitor Albertus redit;
Et improviſus ut ingratus,
Ad oſtium vociferatus,
"Heus, Bella! aperi marito."
O quam ſacerdos fugit cito,
Et condit ſeſe pone lectum,
Dum omne mundum ſit et rectum.
Marito tunc reclusæ ædes;
Cum *Bella*: "Cur tam cito redis?"
Albertus inſit, "ſtultè fata,
"Incultum adeo es me rata
"Ut nollem hoſpiti me dare
"Quem ſors nobiſcum dat cænare;
"Jacobum nempe hunc formoſum
"Adoleſcentem generoſum
"Quem iſthuc miſi."—"Vos miſiſtis!
"At nobis quæſo quid cum iſtis
"Qui noctu pervagantur? Fures
"Ut bene notum ſunt complures
"Libidinoſi vel potores,
"Et horum unus pulſat fores—
"Quid quæſo, timens cum latronem?
"Ad horreum miſi nebulonem."
"Ad horreum huncce," ira fremens
Albertus: "I, duc intrò, demens!"
Intrat Jacobus, Bella malè
Ærumnam celat; penetrale
Sacerdos tenet: "Uxor ito
"(Albertus ait) vide cito
"Ut cænam pares; quicquid dabis,
"Eſto de optimo quod habes."
Reſpondet uxor: "Pulcrè dictum
"Nobis, pertenue queis victum
"Pultes ſufficiant vel frumenta
"Et cibus optimus pulmenta!
"Quid de pulmentis aut de pulte
"(Inſit Albertus) garris ſtulte?
"Huic ventrem durum uti raſtrum
"Vorare credis hoc emplaſtrum?
"Ut ruſtici, queis alvi putres
"Diſtendi valeant ut utres!
"Heus potum quæras ex popinâ
"Igne dum coquitur gallina."
At Bella: "Fruſtra flagitandum
"Nequaquam quod ſuppeditandum;
"Gallinæ cunctæ noſti tute
"Hero pro canône ſolutæ."

Wha ſaw the wife as faſt able,
Spread a clean ſervite on the table,
And ſyne frae the ha' ingle, bring ben
A pyping het young roaſted hen,
And twa good bottles ſtout and clear,
Ane of ſtrong ale, and ane of beer,
But wicked luck, juſt as the prieſt;
Shot in his fork in chucky's breaſt,
Th' unwelcome miller ga'e a roar,
Cry'd, "Beſſy, haſte ye ope the door."
With that the haly letcher fled,
And darn'd himſelf behind a bed;
While Beſſy huddl'd a' things by,
That nought the cuckold mighty eſpy;
Syne loot him in,——but out of tune,
Speer'd why he left the mill ſae ſoon;
"I come," ſaid he, "as manners claims,
To crack and wait on Mr James,
Whilk I ſhou'd do, tho' ne'er ſo bizzy;
I ſent him here, good-wife, where is he?"
"Ye ſent him here (quoth Beſſy grumbling),
Kend I this James? A chiel came rumbling,
But how was I aſſured when dark,
That he had been nae thievith ſpark,
Or ſome rude wencher gotten a doze,
That a weak wife cou'd ill oppoſe?"
"And what came of him? ſpeak nae langer,"
Cries Halbert, in a Highland anger.
"I ſent him to the barn," quoth ſhe:
"Gae quickly bring him in," quoth he.
James was brought in—the wife was bawked—
The prieſt ſtood cloſe—the miller cracked—
Then aſk'd his ſunkan gloomy ſpouſe,
What ſupper had ſhe in the houſe,
That might be ſuitable to gi'e
Ane of their lodger's qualitie?
Quoth ſhe, "Ye may wiel ken, goodman,
Your feaſt comes frae the pottage-pan:
The ſtov'd and roaſted we afford,
Are aft great ſtrangers on our board."
"Pottage," quoth Hab, "ye ſenſeleſs tawpie!
Think ye this youth's a gilly-gawpy?
And that his gentle ſtamock's maſter
To worry up a pint of plaſter?
Like our mill-knaves that lift the laiding,
Whaſe kytes can ſtreek out like raw plaiding.
Swith roaſt a hen, or fry ſome chickens,
And ſend for ale frae Maggy Picken's."
"Hout aye," quoth ſhe, "ye may wiel ken,
'Tis ill brought butt that's no there ben;

Jacobus interim peritus
Rerum plus æquo, nec invitus
Repentitare bona bonis,
Ut suadet norma talionis,
Astutè incipit testari
Se arte magicâ versari:
" Per hanc mirandam, dixit, artem
" Vel totum possumus vel partem
" Opimæ cænæ suffurari:
" Vtine experimentum dari."
Albertus refert, " Vellem bene
" Partem habere lautæ cænæ."
At Belle malum suspicatæ
Sententiæ nullo modo gratæ;
Se civis donat in commendam;
Dum alter suadet nil timendum.

Tunc orbe magico vallatus
Jacobus plurimum profatus,
Infuctis vocibus Latinis,
Græcis, Germanis, peregrinis,
Horrore fovet stupefacta
Ut ipsa maga: " Nunc peracta
" Sunt omnia; ritè jam curatam
" Habebis cænam præparatam;
" En proter optimam Gallinam
" Ex arcula pone caminum!"

Renuente conjuge, maritus
Ad arcam pergit haud invitus;
Nec mirum certe quod narratu,
Discum invenit odoratu;
Quem primùm oculis inspectans
Ut sæpius digitis attractans,
Tunc caute positum in mensa
Declarant unico consensu
Meliorem nunquam hac gallinâ
Abbatis coctam in culinâ:
Nec guttus fallit opinatum
Sic tandem optimè cænatum.

" Quam vellem zythi boni haustum!
" Ingemus dummodo quod tantum,
" (Albertus inquit) do instanter
" Uxorem Satanæ libenter.
" Ut illam redderet manifestam,
" Ni fallacem denum spretum."
Alter: " Nil amplius dicendum
" Quod cupis statim suppetendum."

When but last owk, nae farder gane,
The laird got a' to pay his kain.'
Then James, wha had as good a gueſs
Of what was in the houſe, as Beſs,
With pawky ſmile, this plea to end,
To pleaſe himſel and eaſe his friend,
Firſt open'd, with a ſlee oration,
His wondrous ſkill in conjuration.
Said he, " By this fell art I'm able
To whop off ony great man's table
Whate'er I like to mak a meal of,—
Either in part, or yet the hail of—
And if ye pleaſe I'll ſhaw my art"—
Cries Halbert, " Faith with all my heart?"
Beſs ſain'd herſelf,—cry'd, " Lord be here!"
And near hand fell a ſwoon for fear.
James leugh, and bade her naithing dread,
Syne to his conjuring went with ſpeed:
And firſt he draws a circle round,
Then utters mony a magic ſound
Of words, part Latin, Greek and Dutch,
Enow to fright a very witch: (come,
That done, he ſays, " Now, now 'tis
And in the boal beſide the lum;
Now ſet the board; good-wife, gae ben,
Bring frae yon boal a roaſted hen."
She wadna gang, but Habby ventur'd;
And ſoon as he the ambrie entr'd,
It ſmell'd ſae wiel he ſhort time fought it,
And wond'ring, 'tween his hands he brought it.
He view'd it round, and thrice he ſmell'd it,
Syne with a gentle touch he felt it.
Thus ilka ſenſe he did convеen,
Leſt glamour had beguil'd his e'en;
Then all in an united body,
Declar'd it a fine fat how towdy.
" Nae mair about it," quoth the miller,
" The fowl looks wiel, and we'll ſa' till her."
Sae be't, ſays James; and in a doop,
They ſnapt her up baith hoop and roop.

" Nieſt, O?" cries Halbert, " could your ſkill
But help us to a waught of ale,
I'd be oblig'd t' ye a' my life,
And offer to the deel my wife.
To ſee if he'll diſcreeter mak'her,
But it at I'm ſteyd he winna tak' her.
Said James: " Ye offer very fair,
The bargain's hadden, ſae nae mair."

Virgam falignam ter quaſſebat,
Ter voce rauca ſignum dabat;
Hoc facto, gravia et decora
Ut incantator, fingens ora;
" Ad aream frumentariam ito
" Ampullas et invenies citò
" Binas, cervina repletas
" Sic cuncta teneas quod petas."
Albertus facit uti juſſum,
Ut omnia fiunt ad amuſſim.

Jacobo primum propinare
Qui dedit lautè ſic cænare
Albertus judicat honeſtum,
Dein patri, reliquis:—moleſtum
Si brevi fabulâ dicendum
Locutum quid inter bibendum,

At iſtis ſic dum fabulatum,
Ut gratulatum eſt potatum,
Bella concoquitur furore,
Sacerdos fudat præ timore.

" O ſi liceret nunc rogare
" Quis cænam valeat hanc parare
" Albertus ait; nam fatendum
" Hoc aliquantum eſt horrendum."

Alter: " Myſterium quod videtur
" Verbis perpaucis exponetur:
" Scis denique me Roſæ—crucis
" Verſatum arte, filium lucis;
" Infernos dolos haud calentem
" Sed ſacris ritibus pollentem
" Sic bonis Geniis dum verſamur
" Diabolos abominamur.
" Ex Albumazare perſpicaci
" Ter Doctio, callido, ſagaci,
" Nobis quod volumus eſt datum
" A Genus hiſce ortum:
" Si Dæmonem nunc vis ſpectare
" Dem Verbum, apparebit clare."

Albertus neſcius dum videret
Viſum plus cuperet an timeret,
Audacior paulolum febat
Nec quod projectum renuebat.

Fella, ſiniſtrum augurata,
Et intus maledicens fata,
Dum ire perditum ſe putat,
Aſtutum hoſpitem annutat;

Then thrice he ſhook a willow-wand,
With kittle words thrice gave command;
That done, with looks baith learn'd and grave,
Said, " Now ye'll get what ye wad have;
Twa bottles of as nappy liquer
As ever ream'd in horn or bicker,
Behind the ark that hads your meal,
Ye'll find twa ſtanding corkit wiel."
He ſaid, and taſt the miller flew,
And frae their neſts the bottles drew;
Then firſt the ſcholar's health he toaſted,
Whaſe art had gart him feed on roaſted:
His father's nieſt,——and a' the reſt
Of his good friends that wiſh'd him beſt,
Which were o'er langſome at the time,
In a ſhort tale to put in rhyme.
Thus, while the miller and the youth
Were blythly flock'ning of their drowth,
Beſs, fretting, ſcarcely held frae greeting,
The prieſt inclos'd, ſtood vex'd and ſweating.
" O wow!" ſaid Hab, " if ane might ſpear,
Dear Maſter James wha brought our cheer?
Sic laits appear to us fae awfu',
We hardly think your learning lawfu'."
" To bring your doubts to a concluſion,"
Says James, " ken I'm a Roſicrucian;
Ane of the ſet that never carries
On traffic with black deels or fairies:
There's mony a ſp'rit that's no a deel,
That conſtantly around us wheel.
There was a ſage call'd Albumazor,
Whaſe wit was gleg as ony razor:
Frae this great man we learn'd the ſkill
To bring theſe gentry to our will;
And they appear, when we've a mind,
In ony ſhape of human kind:
Now, if you'll drap your foolith fear,
I'll gar my Paccket appear."
Hab ſidg'd and leugh, his elbuck clew,
Baith fear'd and fond a ſp'rit to view:
At laſt his courage wan the day,
He to the ſcholar's will gave way.
Beſſy by this began to ſmell
A rat, but kept her mind to'r ſell:
She pray'd like howdy in her drink,
But mean time tipt young James a wink.

Et ille clam oſtentat ore
Nec planè inimicum fore:
Deinde hortatur ſic Albertum,
" Quicquid videbis, eſſo certum
" Te nil officere, paratus
" Dum aſtes fores, obarmatus
" Ingenti baculo vel tigno
" Quem dabis Dæmoni pro ſigno;
" Nec parcas fortiter pulſare
" Nam hunc delectat vapulare."

Albertus, fuſti tunc arrepto,
Stat promptus obſequi præcepto;
Dum alter: " Radamanthe, tute,
" Cuculle, Monache, Cornute,
" Aſſumptâ ſpecie Sacerdotis,
" Non Cacodæmonis, ſi potes,
" Des te ſpectandum; reſerantur
" En fores: egredi inſtanter!"

Ex antro minimè invitus
Qua latuit ſacerdos citus
Juſſo morigerans, ad fores
Graditur nullas nectens moras;
Ad limen tandem cum acceſſum
Timor acceleravit greſſum.
Aſt hic Albertus bene catus,
Et juſſum prolis recordatus,
Dat moecho inter fugiendum
Ictum in humeros horrendum:
Evadit nocte jam favente;
Albertus inſit tunc repente,
" Ni Dæmonis cognoſſem roſtrum,
" Heu! Parochum putaſſem noſtrum."

James frae his e'e an anſwer ſent,
Which made the wife right wiel content:
Then turn'd to Hab, and thus advis'd:
" Whate'er you ſee be nought ſurpriz'd,
But for your ſaul move not your tongue;
And ready ſtand with a great rung;
Syne as the ſp'rit gang's marching out,
Be ſure to lend him a ſound rout:
I bidna this by way of mocking,
For nought delytes him mair than knocking."

Hab got a kent—ſtood by the hallan,
And ſtraight the wild miſchievous callan
Cries, " Radamanthus Huſky Mingo,
Monk, Horner, Hipock, Jinko Jingo,
Appear in likeneſs of a prieſt;
No like a deel, in ſhape of beaſt,
With gaping chaſts to fleg us a':
Wauk forth, the door ſtands to the wa'."

Then frae the hole where he was pent,
The prieſt approach'd right wiel content;
With ſilent pace ſtrade o'er the floor,
'Till he was drawing near the door,
Then to eſcape the cudgel ran,
But was not miſs'd by the good-man,
Wha lent him on his neck a lounder,
That gart him o'er the threſhold founder.
Darkneſs ſoon hid him frae their ſight;
Ben flew the miller in a fright;
" I trow," quoth he, " I laid weil on:
But wow he's like our ain Meſs John!"

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Prize Eſſays and Tranſactions of the Highland Society of Scotland. To which is prefixed an Account of the Inſtitution and Principal Proceedings of that Society. By Henry Mackenzie Eſq; Vol. I. 8vo. *Creech, Edinburgh.*

IN 1784 a meeting of gentlemen, natives of the Highlands, or connected with thoſe parts, conceiving that many good conſequences would reſult from the inſtitution of a Highland Society at Edinburgh, determined to communicate their ſcheme to others, concerning the propriety of the meaſure. In a numerous aſſembly it was approved, and a preſident and vice-preſident nominated. Circular letters, ſent to the more reſpectable perſonages in the city and country, inviting them to become members, produced a very general concurrence.

The following regulations, ſpecifying the general objects of the Society, were adopted at a general meeting, January 1785.

'1. An inquiry into the preſent ſtate of the Highlands and Iſlands of Scotland,

land, and the condition of the inhabitants.

'2. Into the means of their improvement, by eſtabliſhing towns and villages; by facilitating communication through different parts, by roads and bridges; advancing agriculture, and extending fiſheries; introducing uſeful trades and manufactures; and by an exertion to unite the efforts of the proprietors, and call the attention of government towards the encouragement and proſecution of theſe beneficial purpoſes.

'3. The Society ſhall always pay a proper attention to the preſervation of the language, poetry, and muſic of the Highlands.'

Beſides theſe general regulations, others, reſpecting the conſtitutional procedure of the aſſociation, are expreſſed in fifteen articles. That it might acquire both ſtability and effect, a royal charter for eſtabliſhing the Society as a corporation was aſked and granted, of which a copy, dated May, 1787, is inſerted in Engliſh and Latin.

The premiums for eſſays on ſpecified ſubjects in 1789, were divided into ſeven claſſes. The ſubjects are of national utility, and the premiums, whether honorary or in ſpecie, ample. As the annual contributions by members are ſo moderate as not to exceed 23s. 6d, it may ſeem ſurpriſing whence ariſe the reſources for remunerating candidates of a firſt and ſecond order; this is to be accounted for from the great number of the members, and the œconomical fidelity of the managers. A recorder and a clerk have a ſmall ſalary, but the ſecretary's ſervices are gratuitous.

The ſubjects, changed from year to year, bring forward to public notice and inveſtigation an immenſity of uſeful improvements, ſome of eaſy operation, others poſſible, and all deſirable. For 1799 the titles of eſſays are either general or local. Of the former ſort is that on Peat Moſs, conſidered as a ſoil, manure, or fuel, in any part of the Society's juriſdiction: of the latter, that on the cultivation of waſte or barren land is limited to the ſhires of Perth, Stirling, Angus, and Mearns; and that on the improvement of ſuch land, by potatoes, extends to the north and weſt Highland diſtricts.

This regulation, by calling forth the exertion of genius and talents, and introducing diſcoveries and improvements to a wide extent, is judicious.

The variety of uſeful papers and experiments relative to agriculture in general, and more particularly to the rural œconomy of the Highlands of Scotland, will, we doubt not, give this volume a general circulation. We ſhall notice a few of them, and but a few, referring to the work itſelf, and recommending it to every proprietor, and cultivator of land.

In an inquiry how far, and with what effects, oxen might be ſubſtituted for horſes in agricultural operations, the Rev. T. Jolly ſtates one remarkable difference. The horſe, however lean, however much reduced, is eaſily recruited; and, if he get but a handful of corn before he is yoked, will endure moderate labour; whereas the ox is good for nothing, and has neither ſtrength nor ſpirit, but will lie down whenever he feels the draught; nor is it poſſible to recruit him, by the ſummer's graſs. Beſides, in ſevere ſeaſons, horſes both keep in better fleſh than the black cattle, with the ſame treatment, and often look tolerably well when the others are dying for want. The principal cauſes for the almoſt univerſal uſe of horſes, in the labours of the farm, are there enumerated; and, from a train of obſervations on the preſent condition of the Highland peaſants, theſe inferences are deduced:

1. Where the rearing of cattle is the great object of a farm, it would be hazardous to ſubſtitute oxen. 2. The circumſtances which eſtabliſhed the uſe of horſes ſtill ſubſiſt. 3. While ſervants wages are comparatively low, oxen ſhould generally be employed upon corn farms; but this cannot be effected under the exiſting circumſtances. 4. Proprietors muſt relinquiſh all ſervices of their tenants' cattle on their mains. 5. All leaſes of eſtates, with a right to the ſervices of inferior tenants, ſhould abſolutely be aboliſhed. 6. On all corn farms at a diſtance from a ready market, the greater part of the rent ſhould be paid in victual, and the money rent falling due at Martinmas ſhould not be demanded before Candlemas or Whitſunday. Thus the tenant would not be obliged to ſell his crop at a diſadvantage early in the ſeaſon.

7. Car-

7. Carriages, of every kind, performed by the tenant, ſhould as much as poſſible be reduced, and roads made. 8. Proprietors ſhould grant larger poſſeſſions, as much as the ſituations of the tenants will admit; make the farms diſtinct and commodious; and, for the encouragement and ſecurity of the occupiers, give them reaſonable leaſes.

In another eſſay, by the ſame author, on the advantages of raiſing timber, he expatiates like a ſkilful philoſopher and a benevolent patriot.

A great part of the north and weſt Highlands, and Iſles, is ſo deſtitute of woods, that it becomes an inquiry of high importance how this defect may moſt eaſily and ſpeedily be ſupplied. Few of the objects which occupy the attention of the Society more deſerve regard. A country or eſtate void of timber looks naked, feels cold, and is in want, not only of ornament, but of the very neceſſaries of life; whereas the land which abounds in wood enriches the owner, gives employment to the poor, and beauty, comfort, and convenience to all the lands around it.

That the ſoil and climate in the Highlands are not unfavourable to the growth of trees, is evident from the veſtiges of the great Caledonian foreſt, which once covered the higheſt and bleakeſt parts, and from the trunks of gigantic pines and oaks ſtill found in peat moſſes almoſt at the top of the Grampian hills. The practicability of clothing theſe now diſmantled regions with proſperous plantations is farther inferred, nay actually demonſtrated, from thoſe natural ſhrubs and artificial foreſts now exiſting in all parts of the inland country where they are preſerved. This ſubject coincides with Mr Nicol's late volume, 'The Practical Planter,' which, with Dr Smith's Lucubrations, we pronounce meritorious of heedful conſideration from all the landholders of the united kingdoms.'

A few hints from Captain Donald Smith's little tract on the propriety of burning heath-grounds, at a proper ſeaſon of the year, for procuring early and rich crops of wholeſome and juicy paſture graſs, are worthy of being tranſcribed.—This author, reaſoning both on philoſophical principles and the reſult of experiments, diſſuades from the practice of applying the flames to luxuriant heath in the winter months; while the juices are condenſed at the roots, which part of the plants, not touched by the fire, will afterward protrude thoſe juices into new ſtems and branches, and defeat even ſubſequent trials. But, in the warm ſeaſon, fire will deſtroy root, ſtem, and branches, all at once. As the laws provide for the ſafety of young partridges and other game, in the hatching ſeaſon, moor-burning may be deferred to July with as much effect as if performed in the earlier months.

In the more northern counties of England and Scotland, eſpecially, is this operation neceſſary. A ſimilar expedient, however, for producing early and plentiful paſture on ſoils, where heath never was a nuiſance, occurs to Captain Smith; I have alſo ſeen, ſays he, the farmers burning the coarſe graſs, called Bent, when it was dry and withered, in Spring. They informed me, that the operation of burning rendered the pile ſmoother and finer, and conſequently more pleaſant to the cattle. This recalls to my remembrance an accident which befel me at a very early period of my life, and which though unimportant in itſelf, yet ſerves to ſhew the propriety of this latter practice alſo. It is cuſtomary with the ſheep farmer in the Highlands to burn briars and thorns, which are apt to entangle his ſheep when on the ſtraths, and ſo to occaſion their death, if not timeouſly relieved. I was amuſing myſelf with this work, in a dry ſpring ſeaſon, in a large park, covered with withered graſs and fog. The flames ſeized the graſs, and over-ran half an acre before they could be extinguiſhed. Chance preſenting the ſame ſpot to my view towards the middle of the enſuing ſummer, I obſerved that the graſs was much longer and better than any where round about. The appearance ſtruck me; but, after a little reflection I recollected that this was the ſpot which had been the ſcene of my former exertions; and I was immediately led to aſcribe the effect to the power of the flames.

The author concludes his eſſay with a caution reſpecting the proportion of heath-lands to be burnt yearly. In high farms, where ſnow lies long, a ſmall part ſhould be burnt in one ſeaſon, and heath of the ſtrongeſt growth be reſerved for the ſheep, as a ſecurity againſt the rigours of a Highland winter. But ſhort and ſtunted heath

againſt

ſhould be burnt, becauſe ſnow buries it as ſoon as the graſs.

The ſociety, by its committees, bring forward overtures for public deliberation, offer premiums for eſſays on ſubjects of general utility, and thus prompt the national genius to momentous diſcoveries. But, ſenſible that improvements of conſiderable magnitude could not be undertaken with ſpirit, or proſecuted with effect, independently of pecuniary aid, the Society procured parliamentary authority for incorporating *a Joint Stock Company* for founding free villages or towns on the coaſts of the Highlands and Iſlands, in ſuch parts eſpecially as were beſt adapted for fiſhing ſtations. For this end the Society ſubſcribed for itſelf ten ſhares amounting to 500l. ſterling, and promoted the ſcheme by circulating printed commendatory reſolutions, and by warmly recommending the meaſure to the members; which has been done with much ſucceſs. From this, and other examples of liberality, it is evident, that this inſtitution is not a body of public projectors, but of active contributors, for executing complicated plans of general improvement.

As the peaſants of every country have neither the ſkill nor the means of accompliſhing beneficial undertakings, and engage, not without reluctance, in ſchemes yet untried, or tried without immediate ſucceſs, the gentlemen and nobility, in their ſeveral diſtricts, muſt be the firſt to ſhew what may be done for rendering the condition of their dependents more comfortable. Grievances ſhould be redreſſed; oppreſſive ſervices, the relicts of feudal tyranny abolished; a more equitable police introduced; leaſes of a reaſonable length given, and rents advanced in proportion to the gradual increaſe of lucrative improvements.

Annals of the French Revolution; or, a Chronological Account of its Principal Events; with a Variety of Anecdotes and Characters hitherto unpubliſhed. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville, Miniſter of State. Tranſlated by R. C. Dallas, Eſq; from the original Manuſcript of the Author, which has never been publiſhed. 4 Vols. 8vo. *Cadell and Davies.*

A PERSON more competent to give a correct account of the rapid and extraordinary change which was effected, not only in the government, but in the diſpoſition of the French people, could not be eaſily found than M. Bertrand de Moleville. Filling a diſtinguiſhed official ſituation in the ſervice of his unfortunate ſovereign, intimately acquainted with the motives by which the court was actuated, an attentive obſerver of the conduct of the leaders of the popular party, and perſonally concerned in many public and private tranſactions of conſiderable importance, he is peculiarly qualified to be the hiſtorian of the events that happened in the commencement of the revolution, to relate circumſtantially a variety of intereſting anecdotes, and to deſcribe with accuracy the principal characters which are introduced. He offers to the public a narration of facts, authenticated by unqueſtionable proofs, or ſupported by the teſtimony of men of acknowledged honour.

The author's private memoirs, relative to the laſt year of the reign of Louis the 16th, publiſhed upwards of two years ago, in vindication of that monarch's memory from the atrocious calumnies fabricated by the republican faction, have been admitted as genuine, and tend to guarantee the fidelity of the preſent volumes. This chronological account, and the memoirs which were principally extracted from it, but are now condenſed and improved by the addition of ſeveral intereſting anecdotes hitherto little known, conſtitute a complete hiſtory of the revolution from its commencement to the death of the king.

M. de Moleville begins his Annals with a ſeries of ſtriking obſervations, reſpecting the gradual decline of the French monarchy, from the death of Louis the 14th, in authority, influence, and financial reſources, and from incapacity or neglect, occaſioned by the predominance of intereſt and intrigue in the appointment of perſons to the chief employments of the ſtate. It appears that the energy of the executive power was firſt weakened in 1750, when, a tax of a twentieth part being laid upon all income without diſtinction, an exemption was admitted in favour of the clergy and the provincial ſtates, in conſequence of their earneſt remonſtrances. Government was alſo

injured by the futility and fluctuation of its decifions, in the religious litigations which arofe between the eccleſiaſtical order and the parliaments. Another power, more dreadful than a military force, and fatal in its conſequences, was ſoon after ſet up by the pſeudo-philoſophers, which, under the name of public opinion, alternately aſſailed the altar and the throne, morality and ſubordination. Whatever was wanting to prepare the approaching exploſion was ſupplied by the American war, which introduced undefined principles of liberty and independence, and the general ferment was increaſed by the unſkilful management of M. Neckar, and the miniſters who ſucceeded him, in augmenting the *deficit*. Such is the outline which the author has drawn of the critical ſituation of the ſtate, when Louis the 16th reſolved to convoke the States-General, and from that period commences his narration of public events. That all his ſtatements are correct we readily admit. The one which relates to the *ſoi-diſant* philanthropiſts, and the ſect of modern philoſophers, is particularly ſo: a ſect which, under the appearance of reform, diſguiſed their real object, deſtruction; a ſect which wiſhed to tear up every thing by the roots, but had nothing ready to plant in its room; a ſect which was deſirous to level every ſocial inſtitution, but was deſtitute of the neceſſary materials to erect a better! It would certainly be a very arduous, perhaps an impoſſible taſk, to defend the excellence of the ancient ſyſtem. But thoſe who deſtroy ſhould not be without the means of creating. To point out the defects of a government, requires no great penetration; for negative truths are within the ſcope of the moſt common intellect; but to find poſitive arguments in ſupport of that which may ſuperſede it, does not fall to the lot of many. But coinciding, as we do, in the ſtatement of our annaliſt, he appears to have omitted others which have had conſiderable influence in producing the revolution. He has not noticed the relaxed ſtate of morality among the privileged orders, the ardent deſire for novelty which urges the maſs of every people, and the remembrance of paſt monarchial oppreſſion.

The proceedings of the States-General, and the ſucceſsful efforts of the Tiers-Etat, are detailed with ſingular accuracy. In his account of all public tranſactions the author is minutely correct, and the authenticity of his documents cannot be queſtioned. The formation of the National Aſſembly; the arts uſed by the leading members to acquire popularity; the diſmiſſion of M. Neckar; the imprudence, to call the conduct of that miniſter by no worſe a name, manifeſted in his adminiſtration; the tumults and inſurrections at Paris, and in the environs of the metropolis; the diſorderly proceedings of the different clubs; the timid and miſtaken policy of the court; the intrigues employed to corrupt the army; the alarms propagated to inſpire the King with terror and miſtruſt; and the plunder and aſſaſſinations committed by the Pariſian mob; are related with all the energetic ſimplicity that characteriſes truth. But it is in the delineation of the characters of thoſe who particularly diſtinguiſhed themſelves at the commencement of the revolution, and in the anecdotes reſpecting them, that the intereſts of the publication chiefly conſiſts. The pictures which are given of the villainy and cowardice of Orleans, of the eloquence and effrontery of Mirabeau, of the craft and duplicity of Sieyes, of the inability and procraſtination of La Fayette, and of the talents, zeal, and courage of Maury, are highly finiſhed. Of the flagitiouſneſs of the late Egalite, the public mind in every part of Europe is fully ſatisfied; but the anecdote which M. de Moleville relates of his daſtardly ſpirit deſerves to be noticed. The Orleans faction, at the head of which were Mirabeau, Sieyes, La Clos, and La Touche, had determined that the Duke, whom they conſidered but as their puppet, to be moved as they might think proper to pull the wires of the conſpiracy, ſhould propoſe himſelf as mediator between the king and the capital, and make his appointment of lieutenant-general of the kingdom the eſſential condition of his mediation. To this propoſal of the committee of Mountrouge (for that was the name of the place, near Paris, at which they aſſembled) the Duke conſented; and how he performed their injunctions is deſcribed in the following terms by the author:

The

'The Duke of Orleans having made himself thorough master of the theme which the committee of Montrouge had prepared for him, went on the 15th to the palace, where he witnessed the affliction and alarm spread by the news of the Bastile being taken, and of the enormities that had been the consequences of it. He surely could not have chosen a juncture more favourable to the demand he went to make: accordingly, he presented himself at the door of the King's chamber, which was before the Council Hall, and, as the Baron de Breteuil was coming out of it, asked him with an embarrassed air, if he could not speak with his Majesty? "It is not possible," replied the minister; "the King is just retired to his apartments, and will see nobody; but if you have any thing to ask of him, or to communicate to him, you may write to him and send me your letter, which I will give to him this evening at the council, unless you think proper to write directly to myself: I will either show your letter to the King, or I will tell him any thing you desire." He chose to write to the minister; but instead of daring to mention in his letter to the Baron de Breteuil the slightest pretensions to the rank of lieutenant-general of the kingdom, he contented himself with begging that mi-minister to ask the King to permit him to go over to England, if affairs took a disagreeable turn.

'The Duke of Orleans, too much ashamed of his cowardice to confess it to his trusty friends, only told them that his demand was before the King, and that the Baron de Breteuil had undertaken to make the report of it to the council which was to be held that very day, at seven o'clock in the evening. In consequence one of them went and waited in the anti-chamber for the breaking up of the council, to be first informed of such important news. The moment he perceived the Baron de Breteuil, he ran up to him, and asked, "if the affair of the Duke of Orleans had passed?" "Yes, without the least difficulty," replied the minister. "And is he appointed then lieutenant-general of the kingdom?"—"Lieutenant-general of the kingdom! what is it you mean?"—"The affair of the Duke of Orleans."—"The Duke of Orleans has asked permission to go to England, and it is granted him: I know no other business he has." The emissary, disconcerted by so unexpected an answer, made no reply to this, but hastened to give an account of it to the members of the committee, and particularly to Count Mirabeau, whose rage, indignation, and contempt, were vented in violent imprecations against the Duke. Almost all these facts are proved in the proceedings at the Chatelet on the offences of the 5th and 6th of October. No mention is there made of the circumstances relative to the Baron de Breteuil, because that minister's evidence was not called for on the trials; but I have reported them because they were attested to me by M. de Montmorin, who heard them from the King, and from the Baron de Breteuil himself.'

A nobler specimen of impassioned and manly eloquence has never been recorded than that which is stated to have been delivered by Mirabeau in the debate with respect to the expedience of intercepting and opening private correspondence:

'Is it the part of a people desirous of becoming free, to borrow their maxims and examples from tyranny? Is it proper for them to give a stab to morality, after having been so long the victims of those who violated it? Let those vulgar politicians, who exalt, above justice, what in their narrow conceptions they dare to call public utility; let those politicians at least tell us what interest can palliate such a violation of national honour. What shall we learn by the shameful inquisition of letters? Paltry and filthy intrigues, scandalous anecdotes, and contemptible frivolity. Is it imagined that plots are circulating by the post? Is it imagined that new politics of any importance pass through that channel? Is there any embassy of consequence, any negociation of an extraordinary nature, that is not carried on by direct correspondence, and which does not defy the prying of the post-office? Without any manner of use, then, should we violate the secrets of families, the intercourse of the absent, the intimacies of friendship, and the confidence between man and man. So criminal a procedure would not even have an excuse; and it would be said of us throughout Europe, that in France,

under pretence of public ſafety, they deprive the inhabitants of all right to letters which are the productions of the heart, and the treaſure of confidence. This laſt refuge of liberty has been violated even by thoſe whom the nation deputed to ſecure its rights. They have left a precedent by which the moſt ſecret communications of the ſoul, the mereſt chance conjecture of the mind, the emotions of anger often miſplaced, errors often corrected the next moment, may be turned into depoſitions againſt third perſons; by which the citizen, the friend, the ſon, the father, may thus become the accuſers of each other, without knowing it; by which they may be the means of deſtruction to each other; for the National Aſſembly have declared, that they will take, as the grounds of their decrees, ambiguous and intercepted communications, which they cannot obtain but by a crime.'

Of the attachment of Mirabeau to the King, and his determination to ſupport the eſtabliſhment of a conſtitutional monarchy, there does not exiſt a doubt, but the author firmly maintains that his ſervices were not purchaſed by the court. At the end of January, 1791, he had determined to have recourſe to every poſſible means to ſtem the torrent of general licentiouſneſs, and to inveſt the crown with what he conceived to be legitimate authority. His ſuggeſtions were agreed to by the King, and for the attainment of his object he propoſed,

'1ſt The diſſolution of the National Aſſembly, and the calling a new one at the requeſt of the Provinces upon other grounds, and principally upon that of property.

'2dly, A plan of conſtitution, drawn up according to the wiſh of the majority of the inſtructions, and ſanctioned by the King.

'To inſure the ſucceſs of theſe means, he propoſed, 1ſt, A coalition in the Aſſembly between the moſt prudent of the royaliſts the beſt of the *Coté-Gauche*. 2dly, A diſtribution of periodical papers in the capital, and in the provinces, to open the eyes of the people reſpecting the projects and manœuvres of the factious, who were miſleading them, and to ſhew the fatal conſequences which muſt reſult from them. 3dly, To ſend into the 83 departments well-choſen commiſſioners, oſtenſibly charged with the demarcation of the limits of the diſtricts and cantons, and whoſe ſecret miſſion ſhould be to procure uniform addreſſes for the calling of a new aſſembly, and for the adoption of the conſtitutional grounds to be propoſed by the King.'

The inſtances adduced of the profligacy and venality of many of the principal ſupporters of the revolutionary principles are numerous, and it is to the neglect which Sieyes experienced from the Archbiſhop of Sens that he is probably indebted for his preſent dignity of conſul. The Abbe had in 1787 puſhed himſelf into notice by his ſyſtematic oppoſition to the views of government in the provincial aſſembly of Orleans, of which he was a member; and it was recommended to the Archbiſhop to purchaſe his ſilence by the gift of an abbey worth 12,000 livres. A propoſition to that effect was accordingly made to Sieyes, to which he conſented, and government found no oppoſition from him the next meeting of the aſſembly. But the prelate forgot his promiſe, and the abbe became a more enthuſiaſtic patriot than before. Some time after he publiſhed his firſt pamphlet, entitled "*Moyens d' Execution*," in which he inſerted the moſt virulent declamation againſt the archbiſhop. The anecdote related of Gobet, the conſtitutional biſhop of Paris, we ſelect as a matter of ſingular curioſity with reſpect to intrigue and hypocriſy.

'In the year 1702, he went to the Marquis de Spinola, the Genoeſe miniſter, with whom he had requeſted an interview on a buſineſs of the utmoſt importance. "I come Sir," ſaid he to him, in an affecting tone, "to impart to you a grand project which my conſcience has ſuggeſted to me, and the ſucceſs of which depends greatly upon you. The matter is this: Divine Providence has granted me his grace to ſee the enormity of the crime which I have commited in taking the Conſtitutional Oath. I wiſh to retract it. I have perhaps rendered myſelf ſtill more guilty by accepting the biſhopric of Paris. I am reſolved to reſign it; but I would make my recantation and reſignation in a manner ſo ſolemn, that there ſhould reſult from them in favour of religion, a benefit greater than the injury I may

have

have done it, by the ſcandal of my conduct."

'The Marquis de Spinola could not but be edified by this reſolution, but he had no notion how his concurrence could be of uſe in the buſineſs. The Abbe Gobet ſoon ſolved the riddle. "Not to mention the danger of being maſſacred," continued he, "to which I expoſe myſelf by ſo ſtriking a conduct, it is certain that I ſhall be deprived of all kind of ſtipend: the decree is poſitive on that head. I have no fortune, and I have been under the neceſſity of contracting debts. If I am ruined and left a bankrupt for having done my duty, my example will not have many followers. I wiſh therefore to know, Sir, whether it would be agreeable to you or not to undertake to impart my intentions to the Pope, and ſolicit for me the aſſiſtance of a hundred thouſand crowns, which would be enough to pay my debts, and ſecure me a ſubſiſtence. This ſum may appear to you a very large one, yet it is very moderate, if you conſider, that the ſalvation of religion in France may depend upon it."

The Marquis de Spinola, who himſelf related this anecdote to me, ſeeing that the affair had nothing to do with the buſineſs of the republic of Genoa, refuſed poſitively to interfere in it.'

The annals of M. Bertrand de Moleville certainly furniſh the moſt complete, genuine, and intereſting account of the French revolution, from the convocation of the States-General to the period of the King's death, of all thoſe which have hitherto appeared. The principal facts are accurately ſtated; the anecdotes are curious, and generally bear the marks of authenticity; the characters of the principal actors in that tragic performance are finiſhed in a maſterly ſtyle; the ſecret ſprings which impelled and regulated the actions of mock-patriots of the day are laid open; and a clue is furniſhed for the ſatisfactory elucidation of the cauſes of many important events which have been involved in obſcurity or attributed to chance.

Strictures on the Modern Syſtem of Female Education. With a View of the Principles and Conduct prevalent among Women of Rank and Fortune. By Hannah More. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. *Cadell jun. and Davies.*

SCARCELY any ſubject has more generally invited diſcuſſion than that of education; and, as our phyſical and moral well-being is eminently concerned in obtaining juſt ſentiments concerning it, we wiſh that we were enabled to compliment our fellow-creatures on their clear and rational views of it: but notwithſtanding our improvements, it yet remains imperfectly underſtood. The narrow conceptions and degrading prejudices of grown children miſlead the riſing generation; and we proceed, from age to age, diſplaying a degree of imbecility and vice which cannot be deemed natural to the human character. Man, abſtractedly conſidered, is a being to be admired, not vilified: he is capable of vaſt attainments; and there is every reaſon for ſuppoſing that he is far from having reached the perfection of his nature, either in body or in mind. Man in cultivated ſociety incomparably ſurpaſſes man in his ſavage ſtate: but there are ſtill many errors and vices in ſociety which demand and admit a remedy, and the removal of which muſt tend to a farther advancement of his being. In making this remark, we would not be thought to abet any wild and Utopian ſpeculations: but we would encourage every reaſonable and virtuous effort for the amelioration of humanity.

It muſt be obſerved that the fair writer does not profeſs to delineate a plan of education for females, but only to furniſh a few ſtrictures on the exiſting mode; that ſhe conſiders inſtruction only as it is connected with objects of a moral and religious nature; and that ſhe regards the great buſineſs of education as being 'to communicate knowledge, to form a correct taſte and a ſound judgment, to reſiſt evil propenſities, and, above all, to ſeize the favourable ſeaſon for infuſing principles and confirming habits.' This is a clear and enlarged repreſentation of the ſubject; and we farther agree with her when ſhe ſays, that, 'in training our daughters, we ſhould carefully cultivate intellect, implant religion, and cheriſh modeſty.'

We apprehend that there is much truth in Mrs More's obſervation (vol. i. p. 73), 'that, in all poliſhed coun-

tries,

tries, an entire devotedneſs to the fine arts has been one grand ſource of the corruption of women.' The whole time of a young lady is now conſumed either in the acquiſition or in the diſplay of what are termed accompliſhments; and ſhe ſeems to regard the end of exiſtence as being to ſhine rather than to be uſeful. 'If, (ſays the author) the life of a young lady formerly too much reſembled the life of a confectioner, it now too much reſembles that of an actreſs.' This is a fatal extreme for female domeſtic virtue, and the ſphere for the diſplay of female virtue is the domeſtic circle.

'The profeſſion of ladies, to which the bent of their inſtruction ſhould be turned, is that of daughters, wives, mothers, and miſtreſſes of families. They ſhould be therefore trained with a view to theſe ſeveral conditions, and be furniſhed with a ſtock of ideas, and principles, and qualifications ready to be applied and appropriated, as occaſion may demand, to each of theſe reſpective ſituations: for though the arts which merely embelliſh life muſt claim admiration; yet when a man of ſenſe comes to marry, it is a companion whom he wants, and not an artiſt. It is not merely a creature who can paint, and play, and dreſs, and dance; it is a being who can comfort and counſel him; one who can reaſon, and reflect, and feel, and judge, and diſcourſe, and diſcriminate; one who can aſſiſt him in his affairs, lighten his cares, ſooth his ſorrows, ſtrengthen his principles, and educate his children.'

If we do not approve every thing in the chapter on *Influence*, it is on the whole highly commendable: and we were particularly pleaſed with her delineation of propriety (vol. i. p. 6).

'Propriety is to a woman what the great Roman critic ſays action is to an orator: it is the firſt, the ſecond, the third requiſite. A woman may be knowing, active, witty, and amuſing; but without propriety ſhe cannot be amiable. Propriety is the centre in which all the lines of duty and of agreeableneſs meet. It is to character what proportion is to figure, and grace to attitude. It does not depend on any one perfection; but it is the reſult of general excellence. It ſhows itſelf by a regular, orderly, undeviating courſe; and never ſtarts from its ſober orbit into any ſplendid eccentricities; for it would be aſhamed of ſuch praiſe as it might extort by any aberrations from its proper path. It renounces all commendation but what is characteriſtic; and I would make it the criterion of true taſte, right principle, and genuine feeling, in a woman, whether ſhe would be leſs touched with all the flattery of romantic and exaggerated panegyric, than with that beautiful picture of correct and elegant propriety, which Milton draws of our firſt mother, when he delineates

Thoſe thouſand *decencies* which daily flow
From all her words and actions.

On the ſubject of *Senſibility*, the female world certainly ſtands in need of a lecture. Part of that which Mrs More has given we ſhall tranſcribe:

'Notwithſtanding all the fine theories in proſe and verſe to which this topic has given birth, it will be found that very exquiſite ſenſibility contributes ſo little to happineſs, and may yet be made to contribute ſo much to uſefulneſs, that it may, perhaps, be conſidered as beſtowed for an exerciſe to the poſſeſſor's own virtue, and as a keen inſtrument with which he may better work for the good of others.

'Women of this caſt of mind are leſs careful to avoid the charge of unbounded extremes, than to eſcape at all events the imputation of inſenſibility. They are little alarmed at the danger of exceeding, though terrified at the ſuſpicion of coming ſhort of what they take to be the extreme point of feeling. They will even reſolve to prove the warmth of their ſenſibility, though at the expence of their judgement, and ſometimes alſo of their juſtice. Even when they earneſtly deſire to be and to do right, they are apt to employ the wrong inſtrument to accompliſh the right end. They employ the paſſions to do the work of the judgment; forgetting, or not knowing, that the paſſions were not given us to be uſed in the ſearch and diſcovery of truth, which is the office of a cooler and more diſcriminating faculty; but that they were given to animate us to warmer zeal in the purſuit and practice of truth, when the judgment ſhall have pointed out what *is* truth.

'Through this natural warmth, which

which they have been juſtly told is ſo pleaſing, but which, perhaps, they have not been told will be continually expoſing them to peril and to ſuffering, their joys and ſorrows are exceſſive. Of this extreme irritability, as was before remarked, the ill-educated learn to boaſt as if it were an indication of ſuperiority of ſoul, inſtead of labouring to reſtrain it as the exceſs of a temper, which ceaſes to be intereſting when it is no longer under the controul of the governing faculty. It is misfortune enough to be born more liable to ſuffer and to ſin, from this conformation of mind; it is too much to allow its unreſtrained indulgence; it is ſtill worſe to be proud of ſo miſleading a quality.

'Impatience, impetuoſity, reſentment, and violence of ſpirit, grow out of this diſpoſition, which will be rather promoted than corrected, by the ſyſtem of education on which we have been animadverting; in which ſyſtem, emotions are too early and too much excited, and taſtes and feelings are conſidered as too excluſively making up the whole of the female character; in which the judgment is little exerciſed, the reaſoning powers are ſeldom brought into action, and ſelf-knowledge and ſelf-denial ſcarcely included.

'The propenſity of mind which we are conſidering, if unchecked, lays its poſſeſſors open to unjuſt prepoſſeſſions, and expoſes them to all the danger of unbounded attachments. In early youth, not only love, but friendſhip, at firſt ſight, grows out of an ill-directed ſenſibility, and, in after life, women, under the powerful influence of this temper, conſcious that they have much to be borne with, are too readily inclined to ſelect for their confidential connections, flexible and flattering companions, who will indulge and perhaps admire their faults, rather than firm and honeſt friends, who will reprove and perhaps aſſiſt in curing them. We may adopt it as a general maxim, that an obliging, weak, yielding, complaiſant friend, full of ſmall attentions, with little religion, little judgment, and much natural acquieſcence and civility, is a moſt dangerous, though generally a too much deſired confidante: ſhe ſoothes the indolence, and gratifies the vanity of her friend, by reconciling her to her own faults, while ſhe neither keeps the underſtanding nor the virtues of that friend in exerciſe. Theſe obſequious qualities are the "ſoft green" on which the ſoul loves to repoſe itſelf. But it is not a refreſhing or a wholeſome repoſe: we ſhould not ſelect, for the ſake of preſent eaſe, a ſoothing flatterer, who will lull us into a pleaſing oblivion of our failings, but a friend, who, valuing our ſoul's health above our immediate comfort, will rouſe us from our torpid indulgence to animation, vigilance, and virtue.'

Melody, the Soul of Muſic. An Eſſay towards the Improvement of the Muſical Art. With an Appendix, Containing an Account of an Invention. *Glaſgow.*

IN the preface we are told, that the writer of the following Eſſay had, from early youth, felt the delightful effects of ſimple and pathetic melody. He frequently noticed, what many others no doubt have experienced, that different ſtrains made various impreſſions on his mind; that ſome highly exhilarated the ſpirits, while ſome gently ſoothed the mind, inclining it to tenderneſs and pleaſing melancholy; and others inſpired it with a kind of mental courage and elevation, eaſier to be felt than expreſſed. He eagerly ſought the enjoyment of thoſe pleaſant ſenſations; and, in the Scotiſh airs, he frequently found that ſimple and pathetic expreſſion which ſuited his taſte. After having long admired and enjoyed theſe, he beſtowed ſome attention on that refined harmonic muſic which is in ſuch general uſe at preſent. In this "mingled world of ſounds," however, he found his expectations diſappointed, and his feelings not a little tantalized. The intricate modulations of the melody, and the perplexing combinations of the harmony, ſeemed, with regard to expreſſion, to be a mere chaos; ill fitted to gratify the mind which had felt the ſtrong influence of the muſic that moves the paſſions. He turned his attention to conſider the principles of this complicated ſyſtem of muſic; and having formed ſome opinions, which excited him to compare them with thoſe of others, he peruſed ſome of the beſt authors who treat of the hiſtory and principles of the art. Some of the ſentiments contained in it may appear bold and preſuming;

eſpecially to ſuch as, from habit or intereſt, are prejudiced in favour of the preſent ſyſtem of muſic. But as theſe ſentiments are inſpired by love of the art, and zeal to apply it to the nobleſt purpoſes, he hopes they will be judged with candour.

The leading thoughts and opinions have originated in his own feelings and judgment. But for many illuſtrations and hints, he is indebted to Dr Burney, and other eſteemed writers on muſic; as will be ſeen from the quotations.

The work may certainly be conſidered as a laudable, and we hope, not unſucceſsful attempt to reſcue the melody of ſweet ſounds from a diſcordant mixture of violent and often harſh ſounds of modern harmony, for as our author juſtly obſerves, (p. 57). figured counterpoint (modern harmony) ſeems to have a natural tendency to weaken the force of melody by dividing the attention. He endeavours to vindicate the claim of muſic to a proper rank among the fine arts, and beſtows juſt praiſe on the old Scottiſh muſic. At preſent, he ſays, (p. 77), the works of favourite compoſers may be the faſhion of the time; but they are ſo full of extravagant modulations, ſo inconſiſtent and trifling in expreſſion, and ſo weighed down by a maſs of elaborate harmony, that except perhaps a few happy and ſimple ſtrains, they ſoon ſink into oblivion.

The eſteem in which the Scottiſh and other ſimple and pathetic melodies are held, is a proof that the taſte of the age is not wholy depraved. This may encourage ſome great muſician to try to eſtabliſh order in the chaos of expreſſion. We might then hope, in time, to ſee the muſical world aſſume a regular and beautiful appearance.

This ſhort treatiſe concludes with an appendix, containing account of an invention by the author.

It occurred to the author that, by adding, to the preſent ſtrings of the violin, doubles tuned an octave below, and by placing the old and new ſtrings ſo cloſe as to be acted on together by the fingers and bow, the tone of the inſtrument would be enriched; and an effect be produced ſimilar to baſs and treble voices ſinging together the ſame air.

After mentioning the trials he has made, the author obſerves, that as there are double the ordinary number of ſtrings, there will always, indeed, be additional trouble in tuning. But, when the pins are all turned in the common way, this can, by no means, be intolerable; eſpecially as the octave is, next to the uniſon, the muſical relation eaſieſt to be aſcertained by the ear. The author, therefore, ſees no inſuperable difficulty in the way of carrying this invention to perfection.

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On downy beds or couches warm,
That Nature owns the Wintry Day,
And ſhrinks to hear the howling ſtorm?
Ah! no!
'Tis on the bleak and barren hearth,
Where Miſ'ry feels the ſhaft of death,
As to the dark and freezing grave
Her children, not a friend to ſave—
Unheeded go!

Is it in chambers, ſilken dreſt,
At tables, with profuſion's heap;
Is it on pillows ſoft to reſt,
In dreams of long and balmy ſleep?
Ah! no!
'Tis in the ruſhy hut obſcure,
Where Poverty's low ſons endure,
And, fearcely daring to repine,
On a ſtraw pallet mute recline,
O'erwhelm'd with woe!

Is it to flaunt in warm attire,
To laugh and feaſt, and dance and ſing,
To crowd around the blazing fire,
And make the roof with revels ring?
Ah! no!
'Tis on the priſon's flinty floor—
'Tis where the deafning whirlwinds roar,
'Tis when the ſea boy, on the maſt,
Hears the waves bounding to the blaſt,
And looks below!

Is it in chariots gay to ride,
To crowd the ſplendid midnight ball,
To revel in luxurious pride,
While pamper'd vaſſals wait your call?
Ah! no!
'Tis in a cheerleſs, naked room,
Where Miſ'ry's victims wait their doom!
Where a fond mother famiſh'd dies,
Man's deſp'rate foe!

Is it where, prodigal and weak,
The ſilly ſpendthrift ſcatters gold,
Where eager folly haſtes to ſeek
The fordid wanton, falſe and bold?
Ah! no!
'Tis in the ſilent ſpot obſcure,
Where fore'd all ſorrows to endure,
Pale Genius learns, Oh leſſon ſad!
To court the vain, and on the bad
Falſe praiſe beſtow!

Is it where Gameſters thronging round,
Their ſhining heaps of wealth diſplay?
Where faſhion's giddy tribes are found
Sporting their ſenſeleſs hours away?
Ah! no!
'Tis where neglected Genius ſighs,
Where Hope, exhauſted, ſilent dies,
Where Merit ſtarves, by Pride oppreſs'd,
'Till every ſtream that warms the breaſt
Forbears to flow.

On the Death of DAVID DOIG, LL.D. *Maſter of the Grammar School, Stirling.*

HE's gane!—he's gane!—ah welladay!
The ſpirit's flown that warm'd the clay!
The light has fled that cheer'd the way
Through Lear's mirk page!
Fir'd the young breaſt wi' Fancy's ray,
And charm'd the ſage:

The ſun is ſet that beam'd ſae bright!
Nae radiance ſhines on Strevlin's height!
Nae ſtar gliats now wi' ſaften'd light
On Fancy's bower!
But dark and ſilent is the night
In Doig's tower*!

In Doig's tower, whar aft and lang
The mingling notes o' Learning rang;
And aft his fav'rite minſtrel rang
In varied key;
Wi' Horace, faſt—wi' Homer, ſtrang—
Wi' Pindar, Fie!

In Doig's tower! whar late and ear
Ilk bud o' Genius bloſſom'd fair;
Nurs'd by the ſkilfu' hand o' Care
They ſprang to view;
Burſt into ſweets, and far and near
The fragrace flew!

He's gane!—he's gane!—Strev'lina mourn!
Drap! drap the ſa't tear on his urn!—
The light again will ne'er return
That cheer'd ye a';
The fire that bleez'd nae mair will burn
In yonder ha!

* The Grammar School, erected on the Caſtle-hill of Stirling.

A TALE,

Addreſſed and Inſcribed to a Family of Children†.

WITH many a month of anxious care,
One favour'd ſhrub Sophia rear'd;
And riſing to the vernal air,
At length its fragrant leaves appear'd.
With fond delight ſhe lov'd to quote,
How ſweet its buds its flowers would blow;
And long'd to view in days remote,
The future orange that ſhould grow.

† The thought from Sir William Jones—"Behold yon Sandel tree, which ſheds it's perfume on the axe which deſtroys it."—I quote from memory, but that is the thought.

When brother William, three years old,
With curious eye approach'd her tree:
Whose ſtalk and leaves, and pot and mould,
Were ſcarcely all as tall he.

Fix'd by its ſide, in thought profound,
He ſaw the promis'd bloſſom lurk;
Ill-boding ſilence hover'd round,
Nor rous'd Sophia from her work.

He ſtretch'd his hand—a friendly breeze
One moment ſway'd the plant aſide;
Ah vain to ſhrink from Fate's decrees,
The next—the friendly zephyr died.

He ſmiling graſp'd the unconſcious tree,
And pleaſure lighting in his ſoul,
Heav'd its young root from bondage free,
And leaf by leaf deſpoil'd the whole.

Then breath'd his pleaſure in a ſigh,
And ſtooping o'er the ſcatter'd ſpoil,
Sophia rais'd her timid eye,
And ſaw the end of all her toil.

Alas! what ſobs and ſighs aroſe,
What anger bluſhing in her cheek;
Mama invok'd, beheld her woes,
Which only ſighs and ſobs could ſpeak.

She ſooth'd and chid with prudent art,
While William ſtrove in vain to tell;
As ſorrow ſwell'd his infant heart,
How ſweet the cheriſh'd plant that fell.

In ſweetneſs o'er his fingers ſtole,
Increas'd Sophia's dire diſtreſs;
When thus Mama, whoſe boſom bled,
And long'd to ſee her anguiſh leſs—

With fond affection cried—"My child,
Hence learn for ill to render good;
And oft in life's uncertain wild,
Bethink thee of this fragrant wood.

In this—its deſtin'd hour of woe,
If woe cou'd be a flowret's doom,
E'en on the hand that lays it low,
We find it ſhed its rich perfume.

Ah! then Sophia mourn no more,
Nought can theſe untaught tears avail;
And learn, tho' dead, thy raſhness flower
Shall live to paint a poet's tale.

Still had it bloom'd like vulgar trees,
Short liv'd and fading were it's time;
While now, (if right the bard decrees)
Its fate—and moral lives in rhyme."

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

(*Continued from page* 202.)

Subſidy to German Princes.

Feb. 17. His Majeſty's meſſage reſpecting the ſubſidy to German Princes being read,

Mr Pitt ſaid, that thoſe who had viewed with joy the conſequences of laſt campaign, would concur in enabling the Government to proſecute the war to a glorious concluſion, by reſcuing the countries now groaning under the French dominion, and giving the French people an opportunity of throwing off the tyrannic yoke which they labour under at home. It was not likely that the Ruſſians would be employed to the ſame extent as before in continental operations againſt France; it was therefore neceſſary, and he was certain it would be practicable, to bring into the field a much greater German force than during the laſt campaign. The total amount of the ſubſidies wanted, would probably riſe to the ſum of 2,500,000l. But at preſent he would only move for an advance of 500,000l. to anſwer the purpoſe ſtated in the meſſage.

Mr Tierney ſet out with explaining his motives for voting againſt the motion. The only argument for the motion was, that the preſent meaſure only followed up a previous vote of the Houſe. But the argument did not go ſo far as that difference of circumſtances might not call for a different conduct. The defection of the Ruſſians was confeſſed, and the character of the conteſt was, therefore, materially altered. What was the common cauſe did not appear ſufficiently clear: With Ruſſia it was the reſtoration of the French monarchy, with Auſtria the acquiſition of territory, and he had not the ſmalleſt doubt but the object of his Majeſty's Miniſters was the reſtoration of royalty in France. On the whole, the object of the war not being yet openly avowed, he muſt oppoſe the preſent motion. He oppoſed it alſo on general grounds. For now after theſe two words "neceſſary and juſt" had coſt us 250,000,000l. when thoſe words were no more, when nothing

human

human was given as a practicable ground for continuing the war, what honeſt man can give it his ſupport? Thoſe words were abandoned! For now the object was one that either Miniſters could not define, or durſt not avow. If they could define it, the war was unneceſſary; if they durſt not avow it, the war was unjuſt. It was unjuſt, becauſe Miniſters did not hear what the enemy had to offer. The Houſe were called on to grant 500,000l. ſupply on a general principle that overtures of negociation had been rejected; and the Miniſter, if ſuch arguments were admitted, might come down in a few nights and call on Parliament for any ſum, on the ſame principles. He did not mean to ſay, that a ſubſidy muſt of neceſſity be wrong, quite the contrary; if blood muſt be ſhed, he would rather with it to be that of the German allies than our own; but on the preſent occaſion he ſaw no neceſſity for any, becauſe peace was within the power of Adminiſtration if they would but condeſcend to treat for it. That this, it had been ſaid, could not be done. Would any man pretend to ſay, that Jacobin principles exiſted in any degree in this country? If he were inclined to wiſh for the reſtoration of royalty, he ſhould not think that a ſubſidy to the Emperor was one of the means proper to be uſed. But under all the circumſtances, he was obliged in duty to oppoſe it on the ſeveral grounds he had above ſtated.

Mr Pitt in reply ſaid, he would ſtate the object of the war in one word, "Security."—"I will add next that it is ſecurity againſt a danger greater than any poſſible peril with which we could be threatened; ſecurity againſt a danger which never before exiſted in the world; ſecurity againſt a danger which applies to all the nations of the earth; againſt which all the nations of Europe have found neceſſary to reſiſt, but which none have reſiſted ſo ſucceſsfully as this, becauſe none have met the preſſure and exigency of it with the ſame vigour, the ſame firmneſs, the ſame conſtancy, and the ſame perſeverance. We have had the glory of reſiſting it with efficacy, both abroad and at home. I do not mean to ſay that we are to carry on the war till the principle of Jacobinism be completely extinct in every individual. That would be to engage in a hopeleſs conteſt; to attempt what could never be accompliſhed. Thoſe perſons who, unfortunately for themſelves and for ſociety, have been ever tainted with the poiſonous contagion of Jacobinical doctrines can never be thoroughly purified. No quarantine can prevent the diffuſion of that plague, no purification can altogether cleanſe the former proſelytes of Jacobinism. And I am perſuaded that nothing can be more dangerous than thoſe who argue on the ſuppoſed extinction of Jacobinism, for they drive to tranquilize our minds by the ſame mode of reaſoning to which they had recourſe at the commencement of the war. They ſtate that we have already ſpent two hundred millions in the conteſt. I anſwer Yes, we have ſpent two hundred millions; but the country has ſpent that ſum to preſerve its national independence, its conſtitution, its civil and religious rights, its trade, commerce, and all the bleſſings which we at preſent enjoy. With ſuch cauſes for exerting every effort; with ſuch motives for the ſecurity of every thing that is dear to us; can we heſitate to call forth every reſource, and apply to every means for the preſervation of the country? Should we heſitate to ſpend two hundred millions more if neceſſary? But the only mode to prevent that expence is, to carry on the war with vigour and perſeverance. The Hon. Gentleman thinks that the war is neither juſt nor neceſſary. It is not juſt, becauſe it is carried on for the reſtoration of royalty; and it is not neceſſary, becauſe we might have made peace. Firſt, in regard to reſtoration of royalty, he ſays, that he cannot obtain an explicit and ſatisfactory anſwer, and that all explanation is modified with an *if* and a *but*, and other particles of ſpecial pleading in politics. I aſſure the Hon. Gentleman, that the ſyſtem of ſpecial pleading is as much exiled from my mind as from his. Though I wiſh for the reſtoration of royalty, I do not look to it as my ſole object. But I have no heſitation to declare, that it would, if effected, lead with more certainty to ſecurity than any other. But in this important conſideration, the dangers of peace ſhould be fairly compared with the dangers of the war; and if you cannot ſhew to me that there is a better chance of obtaining ſecurity

in

in peace than in the profecution of war; if our refources are powerful, while thofe of the enemy are every day impairing, then will it follow that the vigorous continuance of hoftilities is the moft effectual mode of obtaining that fecurity which we fo earneftly defire. Thefe are, Sir, the 'ifs' and 'buts' with which the Hon. Gentleman is diffatisfied. This is the fpecial pleading by which I defire to be tried by God and my Country. The Hon. Gentleman fays Ruffia has withdrawn herfelf from all continental co-operations. Does it therefore follow that the alliance of that power can in no refpect prove beneficial to this country and the common caufe? may not the Ruffians be employed in *maritime expeditions* of great importance againft the enemy? It is obvious that France will be neceffarily employed in the means of refiftance on a moft extenfive line of continental frontier, and fhe will alfo have to provide for the defence of an extenfive line of coaft. One Hon. Gentleman has alluded to the fcarcity of provifions, and ftated that the fum of twelve millions would be wanted to procure a fupply. It is, Sir, with infinite fatisfaction I can affure the Committee, that a very confiderable fupply of corn has been already obtained; that meafures of the moft effectual kind have been taken to quiet every apprehenfion on that head; and that we have at this moment refources equal both to the want of corn, and to the exigencies of the war. It is not true that the war has occafioned the fcarcity; nor is it true that a fupply of corn fhould be more eafily obtained in peace. In arguing the queftion, the Gentleman is undoubtedly juftified in ufing every fair means to convince the Houfe of his opinion; but he ought on no account to exert himfelf to make the conteft lefs fuccefsful. There can, Sir, exift nothing fo dangerous in practice, fo criminal in intention, as to ally and connect the words War and Scarcity. It is a conduct in every refpect likely to lead to the moft calamitous iffue; and I fhould not have noticed it, had I not heard of meafures out of this Houfe which may poffibly tend to produce trouble and confufion.

Mr Sheridan, in a fpeech of confiderable length, oppofed the motion. He enlarged on former breaches of faith in the Emperor, whom he accufed of obtaining money under falfe pretences. He commented on the expreffions in the late official letters on the negociations for peace: On the danger of reftoring the Bourbons, whofe ambition had been repeatedly the object of reffiance and deteftation in this country; and, on the whole, confidered the language of Miniftry, in anfwer to the French overtures, as foolifh, unmanly, and illiberal. He believed, fince they knew of the feceffion of Ruffia, Miniffers had heartily repented their rejecting thefe overtures. He refifted the prefent fubfidy, as he thought no good could arife from it; and becaufe Miniffers had loft the opportunity of negociating.

Sir William Pulteney blamed Miniffers for refufing negociation. No man could fay that France would have refufed to give up Belgium, if fhe had been treated with. He did not agree with the opinion of reftoring monarchy. He thought it could never be poffible. No doubt there were many royalifts in France, but he was convinced the great mafs of the people were decidedly on the other fide of the queftion. As the Houfe had, however, been of opinion that the war ought to be profecuted with vigour, he would vote for the fupply on that account, and that only.

Mr W. Smith thought it very ridiculous that England fhould be paying other powers for fighting their own battles, and doing their own butinefs.

The Houfe then divided,

For the queftion, - - - - - 162
Againft it, - - - - - 19
Majority 143.

Scarcity of Grain.

Lord Hawkefbury adverting to the act of the 13th Geo. III. faid, that the Committee had agreed univerfally in one general opinion, which was that legiflative interference could have very little effect in any thing that related to the fubject in queftion; all that they at this day deemed to be their duty, was to afcertain the deficiencies of that article, and by fome temporary meafure try to remedy them. A mifchievous defign was afloat of uniting the prevailing fcarcity with the war? The obvious tendency of that required no reply from him; but he was bound to declare that in no inftance did the one connect itfelf with the other; war had nothing to

to do with winds or rains, nor the ſeaſons with war. With regard to the importation of that article, the ports from whence we received it were thoſe of the Baltic and America, neutral ſtates: And in the year 1796, there was the greateſt importion of corn here that was ever known in any time of peace whatſoever, being no leſs than 26,291 quarters of wheat, beſides a proportional quantity of barley, rye, and other grain. The average quantity of wheat uſed for bread was eſtimated at eight millions of quarters annually; of this neceſſary quantity it appeared by the report, that about one month's ſupply for the year was actually wanted, or about 600,000 or 700,000 quarters of wheat.

To make up that deficiency he thought might be accomplithed, if, for the next ſix or ſeven months, ſtale bread was uſed inſtead of new bread; by this an average of one fortnight might be obtained. The next mode would be, to make the bread of ſuch a compoſition as would take in more of the bran; and the third and laſt would be, to encourage the uſe of potatoes. Theſe two latter circumſtances, even if we could not import more wheat, would certainly make up the deficiency of the other fortnight.

The Speaker, from notes of the late Doctor Addington (his father), read to the Houſe an opinion of that learned phyſician, that the beſt nutriment for human ſuſtenance of the corn kind was bread made of whole meal; i. e. a natural mixture of all the corn and all the bran.

Ways and Means.

24. The order of the day being read, the houſe reſolved itſelf into a committee of ways and means.

Mr Pitt then roſe and ſaid, that he ſhould enter briefly and directly into this ſubject. He ſhould firſt enumerate the articles of ſupply for the current year. Theſe were, the navy 13,619,000l. the army 8,850,000l. The extraordinaries 2,500,000l. the ordnance 1,695,000l. Miſcellaneous ſervices, including the plantation eſtimates, 750,000l. Theſe were the great heads. After which came the debt due to the bank on outſtanding exchequer bills, 816,000l. the deficiency of grants, 447,000l. the deficiency of land and malt, annually taken at 250,000l. the deficiency of the income tax, 750,000l. There were alſo 2,500,000l. voted on the credit of bills ſecured on the tax on aids and contributions, commonly called the aſſeſſed taxes, and on the tax on exports and imports. Of this ſum, bills had been iſſued only to the amount of 1,079,000l He ſhould alſo take a vote of credit for three millions, to be iſſued, as in the laſt year, in exchequer bills, though of that ſum no more than 1,914,000l. had been actually uſed. The ſubſidies to foreign powers, of which 500,000l. had been already voted, he had taken at 2,500,000l. and he was not as yet in poſſeſſion of any information which could enable him to alter or correct that eſtimate. Theſe ſubſidies, he muſt obſerve, were excluſive of what was payable to Ruſſia for the troops at preſent in our pay, and now actually in this country: this expence he ſhould reckon at 500,000l. making in the whole 3,000,000l. for the article of ſubſidies. To theſe were to be added the ſum of 200,000l. voted in addition to the annual million for the reduction of the national debt. It would alſo be neceſſary, in his opinion, to take a ſum of 17 or 18,000,000l. for contingent and unforeſeen expences. Theſe ſums added together would make a total of thirty-nine millions five hundred thouſand pounds, which formed the total of the ſupply for the current year. On the other ſide of ways and means he ſhould begin by taking the land and malt duties, as uſual, at 2,750,000l. the lottery at 200,000l. tax on imports and exports at 1,250,000l. the income tax, as far as the accounts could be made up to the 5th of April 1800, was eſtimated to produce the ſum only of 6,200,000l. of which ſum no more than 6,100,000l. owing to the delay of remittances from India, and other ſettlements abroad, was expected to be paid by that day into the exchequer. He did not think, however, that a fair view of this tax, was to be taken by looking to its produce in 1799, or an inference to be drawn from thence reſpecting its ultimate amount, when duly collected, and enforced by ſome neceſſary regulations. If other taxes laid on during the preſent war had produced as much in the firſt year as they could be eſtimated to bring in a year of peace, it had ariſen from either the one or the other of theſe two cauſes—that they were founded on

taxes

axes the effect of which was known before—or that they were such as were eaſy in their application. Neither of theſe two principles, he obſerved, were applicable to the income tax, and it was but fair, therefore, to conclude that its produce might be augmented by ſubſequent regulations. He ſhould take the produce therefore for the preſent year at ſeven millions, from which was to be deducted the ſum of 400,000l. for the intereſt of eight millions, and 583,000l. for the intereſt of eleven millions borrowed in the courſe of laſt year. The amount of the income which would be applicable to the ſervice of the preſent year, was 5,300,000l. In addition to this, he was happy to ſtate, that the growing produce of the conſolidated fund had in the laſt year received a conſiderable increaſe, which formed a moſt important addition to our permanent revenue. He looked to it for a ſum of no leſs than 5,500,000l. a reſource, which, if ſolidly made out, and clearly proved, could not but be regarded by the committee with infinite ſatisfaction. This fund had produced three millions and a half within the laſt year more than in any year of peace. All claims upon it were made good by the produce of three quarters, with the exception only of the ſum of one hundred and twenty-eight thouſand pounds. The diſpoſable balance therefore of the quarter ending April 5th 1800, if it correſponded with that of the ſame quarter in 1799, would be no leſs than 620,000l. In addition to this it was to be obſerved, that the payments for the redemption of the land-tax, being made by inſtalments, came in but ſlowly, and that in the laſt year no more than 210,000l. had been actually received. But as the ſum of 1,300,000l. was receivable in three years on the contracts already made, and as the intereſt to be paid with theſe inſtalments would amount to 154,000l. he had a right to include the proportion which belonged in fact to the preſent year which would make the ſurplus of the quarter ending on the 5th of April next, amount to 894,000l. The permanent revenue for the laſt four quarters amounted to 23,791,000l. to which were to be added the payments not yet received, and which would make the total of the permanent revenue twenty-four million and ninety thouſand pounds.—The total of the permanent charge was - - L. 18,589,000
Add, civil liſt - 898,000
Miſcellaneous - 239,000

L. 19,726,000

The latter of theſe ſums ſubtracted from the former, left a balance in favour of the country, amounting to 4,365,000l. To this was to be added the ſum of 750,000l. ariſing from impreſt monies, and from the advances made to the merchants of Grenada and St Vincent's, which were now in a courſe of repayment. This would raiſe the balance to 5,115,000l. From this was to be ſubtracted, on the one hand, the ſum of 494,000l. for the payment of intereſt on the imperial loan, ſuppoſing that we were to make good that payment: on the other hand was to be added the ſum of 894,000l. being the balance of the quarter ending April, to which he had before alluded. This would make the nett ſurplus of the growing produce of the conſolidated fund amount, within a fraction, to 5,500,000l. In addition to theſe ſums, he was to take credit for exchequer bills to the amount of 3,000,000l.—[Here we muſt add the advance from the bank of three millions, for the renewal of their charter, which the chancellor of the exchequer omitted to ſtate, and for which omiſſion he made an apology in a ſubſequent ſtage of the buſineſs.]—If the committee, he proceeded to ſtate, would add to theſe ſums the amount of the loan, viz. 18,500,000l. leaving out of the queſtion, the 2,000,000l. borrowed for the excluſive uſe of Ireland, they would find them to amount to thirty-nine millions five hundred thouſand pounds; making the ways and means exactly equal to the amount of the ſupplies, as would appear by the following ſummary.

Land and malt -	L. 2,750,000
Lottery - -	200,000
Exports and imports -	1,250,000
Income tax (applicable)	5,300,000
Conſolidated fund -	5,500,000
Exchequer bills -	3,000,000
Bank advance - -	3,000,000
Loan - - -	18,500,000
	L. 39,500,000

Having thus ſtated the ſupplies for the current year, and the ways and means by which they were to be defrayed, he ſhould

ſhould proceed to remark briefly on the terms of the loan, and to lay before the committee what was to be the additional charge on the country, and the taxes by which the intereſt was to be defrayed. With reſpect to the terms upon which the loan was made, they had already been the object of ſo much notice, that he felt it neceſſary to trouble the committee with a few words. They afforded, in his opinion, a moſt unequivocal proof of the wiſdom and ſolidity of that ſyſtem of finance which had been of late years adopted by that houſe, and of the potency of thoſe reſources by which we were enabled to maintain the conteſt in which we were engaged. The lenders, on this occaſion, had agreed to take 11ol. conſols, and 47l. reduced annuities for every 100l. lent. The bargain was made at a time when all the parties were in complete ignorance of the price of the funds on that day. Taking the conſols at 61, then the conſideration given for every 100l. borrowed, and including the diſcount, amounted only to 98l. 18s. 11d. If the conſols were rated at 62, to which they had afterward ariſen, then the conſideration would amount to 100l. 10s. 5d. Thus, in either caſe, there was but a very trifling bonus on either ſide. On the amount of the ſtock granted for each 100l. viz. 157l. the intereſt to be paid by the public was no more than 4l. 14s. 2d. being ſomewhat leſs than four and three quarters per cent. No perſon could be ignorant that this was a price conſiderably leſs than we could have borrowed at before the recent ſyſtem of finance had been eſtabliſhed. The amount of the permanent charge to be incurred in this inſtance would furniſh, if poſſible, a ſtronger proof of the propriety of that ſyſtem. Inſtead of looking to a large increaſe of taxes for the payment of intereſt on the ſum which we were compelled to borrow, he had the ſatisfaction to ſtate that the conſolidated fund, with the other reſources which he had mentioned, would be ſufficient to defray the whole of the intereſt required excepting only what would be wanted for the ſum of five millions! The intereſt on this ſum amounted to 235,000l. The one per cent. which was to be added for the purpoſe of contributing to the extinction of the national debt, as provided by a former act, was 78,500l. making a total of 313,500l. He had now to ſtate the taxes by which this annual charge was to be defrayed: the firſt which he ſhould ſuggeſt was a tax on high priced teas. He could not think that this tax would be found objectionable, as ſince the laſt duty had been laid on this article, the ſales of the Eaſt India company and the general conſumption, had very much increaſed. By laying the tax on teas of a higher price the houſe would avoid any additional burden on the poor, whom he was certain it was at all times their inclination to ſpare. He ſhould therefore move a reſolution to impoſe a duty of 5 per cent. on all teas above the value of 2s. 6d. per lb. The produce of this tax he calculated at 130,000l. In the next inſtance, he ſhould propoſe a ſmall additional duty on Britiſh and foreign ſpirits. The tax on home-made ſpirit he propoſed to be one penny per gallon on the wash, which would amount to five pence per gallon on the ſpirit. This tax he calculated at 100,000l. In the third place he ſhould move a proportionate tax on rum and brandy. Theſe were articles, which, with a view to the health of the people, he truſted that the committee would concur with him in thinking ſhould be taxed as heavily as they could bear. The ſpecific amount the chancellor of the exchequer did not intimate: the general produce of which he took at 120,000l. The new taxes he then recapitulated as follows:—

Tea - - -	L. 130,000
Britiſh ſpirits -	100,000
Rum and brandy -	120,000
Total	L. 350,000

The intereſt required being 313,000l. there was therefore an exceeding of 37,000l. He here adverted to the bank advances, which he had omitted; but ſaid, that he ſhould take credit for the amount, without diſcuſſing the renewal of the charter, until the buſineſs came properly before the houſe. He concluded with ſaying, that in propoſing theſe taxes, he could not but congratulate the committee and the country on the ſmallneſs of their amount; and he truſted that the whole of the recital which he had to make this day offered the beſt and ſtrongeſt proof of the increaſed reſources and growing proſperity of the nation.

After ſome oppoſition from Mr Tier-

ney and Mr Burdon, the report was agreed to, and the houſe adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Scarcity.

Feb. 20. *The Archbiſhop of Canterbury* roſe, and called the attention of their Lordſhips to the preſent alarming and calamitous ſcarcity of corn that prevailed in conſequence of the failures in the crops of laſt year; he ſaid in times like theſe, where it was admitted that Legiſlative interference could not afford much remedy, it became every perſon, in their individual capacity, to promote as much as poſſible every means that could in any way leſſen the evil.—In the year 1795, his Grace remarked that the two Houſes of Legiſlature, when a calamity like the preſent prevailed, united in one common reſolve to reduce as much the uſe and abuſe of bread in their individual families as was conſiſtent with their ſeveral but actual neceſſities; and that ſyſtem, as far as it was then adopted, had the deſired effect. An object ſimilar to that was his Grace's intention to ſubmit to that Houſe; and he deemed the moſt correct and efficient way would be, to propoſe it in the ſhape of a reſolution, inviting the concurrence of the other Houſe therein. After ſome other remarks, he propoſed a reſolution, "That their Lordſhips do covenant, ſeverally and individually, with the other Houſe of Parliament (that Houſe being invited thereto) not to permit more bread to be uſed in their reſpective families than as at the rate of one quartern loaf per week to each perſon therein."

It was agreed, that the reſolution ſhould lie on the table, for the ſignature of as many Peers as were inclined to patronize it.

The War.

Lord Stanhope, purſuant to the notice he had given, roſe to make a motion, the object of which was, he ſaid, to put an end to the war. He began with ſtating, that the means which this country poſſeſſed for carrying on the war were not equal to thoſe poſſeſſed by France, and by which ſhe was enabled to reſiſt the different powers combined againſt her. In order to prove this aſſertion, he firſt took a general view of the ſtate of the Britiſh finances, from a pamphlet written by Mr Roſe. Taking the population of Great Britain to be 6,000,000, the average taxes paid by every individual would, according to Mr Roſe's amount of the taxes, be 6l. 10s. a year. The whole population of France, including the countries that were united to her ſince the war, might be eſtimated at 32,000,000; and ſuppoſing the taxes now paid by France to be the ſame as Mr Roſe ſtated, the average tax upon every perſon in that country was no more than 10s.; thirteen times leſs than the amount paid in England. There was another fact in regard to France which nobody could deny: The cultivation of land was lately more encouraged there, and carried on to a greater extent than ever it had been during the monarchy: All the manors and parks formerly uſed for hunting were now applied to purpoſes of agriculture. The Government of France now received large rents from thoſe lands; while the lands of Great Britain were mortgaged beyond their real value. The revenues of this country were greatly increaſed in conſequence of the war; the moment a peace would arrive, they muſt neceſſarily ſuffer a great defalcation; but the longer a peace was delayed, the greater and more terrible would be the evil ariſing from the ſudden ſtoppage of ſo much revenue. If theſe facts were properly conſidered, nothing could be more evident than the fallaciouſneſs of thoſe high-ſounding declarations concerning the great wealth and abundant reſources of this country, the deſtruction of all commerce and finances in France, &c. The preſent ſcarcity was certainly occaſioned by the viſitation of God; but the continuance of it was owing to the war, which ſhut up the ports of Flanders and France, where corn was now comparatively cheap. His Lordſhip commended the conduct of the King of Pruſſia: Thence he went thro' the hiſtory of the ſeveral negociations for peace, and juſtified the conduct of the French in diſmiſſing Lord Malmſbury. He concluded by moving an addreſs to his Majeſty, which ſtated that peace was neceſſary, that the war converted ſcarcity into famine, and other ſimilar topics.

After a few words from the Lord Chancellor, the queſtion was put and there appeared, upon a diviſion,

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Majority, 34.—Adjourned.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Downing-Street, April 28.

A Diſpatch, of which the following is an extract, has been received from the Right Hon. Lord Minto, his Majeſty's Envoy Extraordinary and Miniſter Plenipotentiary at Vienna, by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville.

MY LORD, *Vienna, April 17.*

I have the ſatisfaction to acquaint your Lordſhip, that the campaign has opened in Italy by an important ſucceſs on the ſide of the Auſtrians. On the 6th inſtant General Melas attacked the ſeveral poſts occupied by the French to the northward and weſtward of Savona and Vado, and drove them from the poſitions of Torre la de Bouna, Monte Notte, and ſeveral others: Some of theſe poſts were ſtrongly entrenched, and one of them defended by three thouſand men; but they were carried by the courage and conduct of the Auſtrian troops, who appear to have acquired much honour on this day.

The enemy retired with precipitation on Vado and Savona, leaving their cannon and about three hundred priſoners, among which is a Chief de Brigade, and ſeveral officers of diſtinction. In the night between the 6th and 7th the troops evacuated Vado, having deſtroyed the ſtores and ſpiked the cannon, and retired, by ſea, towards Nice. Their number is ſuppoſed to have been between ſeven and eight hundred.

The Auſtrians took poſſeſſion of the fort of Vado in the morning, and found ſeventeen pieces of heavy artillery. General Melas immediately inveſted Savona.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

RUSSIA.

The variable politics of this country have again aſtoniſhed the world; and the aſpect it at preſent exhibits may probably be productive of more influence upon the progreſs of the war, than any one event that has hitherto occurred in any country. It appears that the Britiſh cabinet are not ſo forgetful of the intereſts of their country, and of Europe at large, as to conſent that Malta, which has probably by this time fallen into our poſſeſſion, ſhould be tacitly relinquiſhed into the hands of the Emperor Paul; and it is generally believed, that it will be, or has already been, occupied in the name of his Sicilian Majeſty. The Ruſſian Czar, however, who has ſtedfaſtly fixed his eye upon this important fortreſs, and has already elected himſelf into the high poſt of Grand-Maſter of the knights of Malta, cannot quietly brook the reſiſtance which he finds is making from all quarters, to his very modeſt and diſintereſted pretenſions.

St Peterſburgh, Feb. 21.—The following official accounts, relative to the late expedition to Holland, have appeared in this day's Court Gazette:

Report from the General of Infantry, Count WORONZOW.

"London, Jan. 11. (O. S.)

"Finding that Lieut. Gen. Eſſen, in his relation of the unfortunate battle, on the 19th of October, has not named to your Imperial Majeſty the regiments which were then in confuſion, and as you, moſt gracious maſter, have been pleaſed to deprive ſeveral of them of the Grenadiers March, which has driven them to deſpair, I am induced to believe that he has made a particular report to your Majeſty, or that, perhaps, he has charged a perſon ſent by him to St Peterſburgh, verbally to inform your Majeſty of it, and that in thoſe reports all the regiments and battalions, without exception, are ſtated to have been in confuſion. The commanders of them have made remonſtrances to me on that account, particularly Major Gen. Sedmorazwi, whoſe regiment, as well as the battalion of Erichſon, had not only remained in proper order, but have, on the contrary, greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves: and Col. Baklonowſki, as Commander of the regiment of Ferſen, which, on that occaſion, was not with our troops, but with the right wing of the Engliſh, where that regiment fought with manly courage, and obſerved the ſtricteſt order and diſcipline. The regiment of Major-Gen. Emme, and the united battalions of Ovarew and Mituſenin were not at all preſent in this unfortunate affair, but having diſembarked at the Helder, at a later period, only joined the army three or

four days afterwards. However, as I had not been an eye-witneſs, I thought it neceſſary to make all poſſible enquiry, previouſly to my informing your Majeſty of it; on which account I aſked the Duke of York, who confirmed the ſtatements of the above-mentioned Chiefs. His Royal Highneſs added, that theſe Officers deſerved the greateſt pity, knowing that they were driven to deſpair on ſeeing their regiments puniſhed, in conſequence of the unjuſt report of their Leader; that he, as Commader in Chief, had thought it his duty to convince your Majeſty of the innocence of the troops; and that immediately after having been informed of the concern and grief of their Commanders, he had written to me officially, which letter I ſhould find on returning home, and which he would have delivered to me in perſon, had he known that I had intended to come to him. That letter I actually found, as the Duke had informed, and being obliged to diſpatch the chaſſeur Troſin, I encloſe that letter in the original, expecting your Imperial Majeſty's moſt gracious reſolution. On this occaſion, I cannot omit to repreſent to your Imperial Majeſty, that the regiment Swaliſhin, then Benkendorf, in the battle of the 19th of September, attempted to make up for the loſs of one of its colours, by taking one of the enemies, which is yet retained in the regiment. The circumſtances attending that loſs, according to the reports and general orders, were as follows: in the battle of the 8th, (19th), that regiment was ſtationed at the moſt dangerous point, and ſuffered conſiderably more than all the others; but it only loſt them when the Enſign Schtſchegolowitz, during the ſevereſt and deſperate attack of the enemy, ſaw that it would be impoſſible to ſave them. Encouraged by Enſign Bagogewut, who was with the colours, he tore them off the pole, wrapt them round his body, and thus remained, together with the Enſign Bagogewut, on the field of battle. The remaining nine ſtand of colours belonging to the regiment are all full of holes."

LETTER *of His Royal Highneſs the Duke of* YORK, *to the Ambaſſador of his Imperial Majeſty of* RUSSIA, *Count* WORONZOW, *in London, dated Jan.* 14, 1800.

"Having learnt, with the greateſt concern, that his Imperial Majeſty, in conſequence of innacurate and uncertain reports, has ſignified his diſpleaſure to the whole of the Ruſſian troops who had been in Holland, I think it my duty, and it gives me pleaſure, to do juſtice to ſeveral regiments, who, in different actions with the enemy, have evinced as much order as bravery. The muſketeers of Gen. Semoraſkoi, and the battalion of Erichſon Grenadiers, in the battle of the 17th of September, took poſſeſſion of the village of Warmenhuyſen, made 700 priſoners, and took three pieces of cannon. On the 2d of October the ſame three battalions made themſelves maſters of two batteries near the canal of Alkmaar, forcing the enemy to retreat; and in the laſt action, on the 6th of October, they took the village of Baakum, again making ſome priſoners. In the battle of the 19th of October, the whole regiment of Ferſen muſketeers was with the right wing of the Engliſh, and its diſcipline and bravery merit the higheſt praiſe. The battalions of Grenadiers of Majors Ogare and Miljuſchin were not diſembarked before all the other troops had landed, on which account they could not join the army till after the unfortunate battle of the 19th, but in the actions of the 2d and 6th, they diſtinguiſhed themſelves, as did alſo the regiment of Emme, by order and bravery.—I have been an eye-witneſs of the order and bravery with which all theſe corps fought againſt the enemy, and have always teſtified to them my ſatisfaction; it was therefore with regret I obſerved that they had incurred his Imperial Majeſty's diſpleaſure, which would not have been the caſe, had their praiſe-worthy behaviour been properly repreſented. I ſhould certainly not have omitted to write myſelf to his Imperial Majeſty, had I not been afraid to diſcommode him; but ſince I know how much his Imperial Majeſty is attached to his army, and with what ſatisfaction he adminiſters juſtice to every individual, I think it my duty to apply to your Excellency, as Commander in Chief of the Ruſſian troops in England, perſuaded that you will feel with me how painful it muſt be to

theſe

theſe brave ſoldiers to have done their duty, and nevertheleſs to be loaded with the diſpleaſure of his Imperial Majeſty. You will omit nothing, in your reports to his Imperial Majeſty, to do juſtice to thoſe who have rendered themſelves deſerving of it."

In conſideration of the above ſtatements, the regiment of grenadiers, Savaliſchin, is to have new colours, on which their bravery is to be inſcribed.

DENMARK.

Intelligence has been received of the deceaſe of the King of Denmark. The unfortunate derangement under which he is well known to have laboured for many of the latter years of his life, having, however, for a long time ſince thrown the reins of government into the hands of the heir apparent, no political change of conſequence can be expected to occur from ſuch an event.

FRANCE.

The Firſt Conſul has ſent a letter to the members of the municipality of the city of Amſterdam, dated the 8th of March, to the following purport.—I have taken every precaution to make this campaign deciſive: but to ſecure its favourable iſſue, I ſhall in the firſt place have need of an extraordinary fund of ten or twelve millions; and as in a common cauſe the efforts ought to be reciprocal, I addreſs myſelf to you, Citizens. I ſent you General Marmont, member of the council of ſtate, and I have charged him to preſent you with a plan, according to which the payment of the advances made by the commune and inhabitants of the city of Amſterdam to the French government will be ſecured in the ſureſt manner.

"Knowing the good diſpoſition which the citizens of Amſterdam have always manifeſted, I do not heſitate in circumſtances of ſuch urgency to have recourſe to their zeal."

ITALY.

For the accounts of the opening of the campaign, ſee *London Gazette* p. 279.

Venice, March 14.—The new Pope has taken the name of Pius VII. He is of a mild and humane deportment, of a middling ſize, rather ſtout, his hair black, and commands reſpect. This morning at eight o'clock, the firſt Dean of the conclave appeared on the balcony of the Benedictine Convent of St Giorgia Maggiore, and announced to the people aſſembled there, that the election was at length happily terminated. This afternoon the Cardinals had the honour of kiſſing his Holineſs's hand and foot, and of being admitted to the double embrace. The Prelates, Nobility, and other perſons of rank, alſo had free admittance. The coronation will take place next Sunday ſe'nnight.

PORTUGAL.

The treaty of defenſive alliance between Ruſſia and Portugal was ſigned at Peterſburg, the 21ſt of September 1799. The two contracting powers mutually guarantee each other's poſſeſſions. They declare their object is not to do wrong to any power, but to contribute to their mutual benefit and ſecurity, and to the re-eſtabliſhment of peace in Europe. It is ſtipulated, that, on the requiſition of either of the two powers attacked in their poſſeſſions, Ruſſia is at firſt to furniſh 6000 infantry; and that Portugal on the other hand is to furniſh to Ruſſia a ſquadron of ſix ſhips of war, five from 64 to 74, and a frigate of 32 to 40 guns. The aid may be furniſhed in money, at the option of the party requiring. The auxiliary ſquadron of Portugal ſhall always be employed conjointly with the Ruſſian ſquadron, or with thoſe of their ally the king of Great Britain.

EAST INDIES.

Advices have been received overland from Bombay, dated the 20th of December, which ſtate the highly important intelligence of the fort of Jemaulabad having ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms, on the 8th of October. This completes the conqueſt of the Myſore country.

The natives have all, it is ſaid, expreſſed the warmeſt ſentiments of loyalty and attachment to the new ſyſtem of government.

IRELAND.

The anti unioniſts in the Iriſh Parliament made a bold but unſucceſsful attempt to ſuſpend, if not to defeat, the queſtion of the incorporative union; by bringing forward a motion for the diſſolution of Parliament. The mover was Sir John Parnell, the late Chancellor

cellor of the Exchequer, who ſupported the meaſure, in conjunction with his friends, on the ground, that a new election was the only mode of aſcertaining the ſenſe of the people—The motion was rejected by a majority of 150 to 104.

The two houſes of the Iriſh parliament having finally concurred in the reſolutions conſtituting the foundation of the plan of an union, and in an addreſs to the Lord Lieutenant on that ſubject, requeſting him to tranſmit them to the king, waited on his Excellency on Friday laſt; and thus the buſineſs terminates in Ireland for the preſent.

Letters, dated Dublin Caſtle, April the 6th, mention, that propoſals for a loan, of 1,500,000l. Iriſh, for the uſe of the Iriſh government, will be received at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Caſtlereagh, on the 16th inſtant, for which debentures of 100l. each, to the amount of one million and a half will be iſſued, bearing an intereſt of 5l. per cent. per annum, from the 25th of March laſt.

LONDON.

Plymouth, March 26. This morning Mr T. Mills, purſer of his Majeſty's ſhip Danae, of 20 guns, commanded by Captain Lord Proby, alſo the ſurgeon, and captain's clerk of that ſhip, landed here out of a cartel from Morlaix. The Danae, on Friday, the 14th inſtant, was cruiſing off Uſhant; at ten o'clock on the evening of that day (the maſter having the watch on deck at the time) an alarming mutiny inſtantaneouſly broke out among the crew, who knocked down the maſter, and immediately ſecured the hatchways and cabin doors, confined the officers below, and ran away with the ſhip into Breſt; and after having the veſſel entirely in their poſſeſſion, they had the wanton barbarity to turn the forecaſtle guns aft, and fired ſeveral ſhots through the cabin, fortunately, however, without doing the leaſt injury to any of the officers, none of whom were killed, or any wounded, except Captain Lord Proby, who received a ſlight cut in the head with a ſabre, and the maſter, who was bruiſed when knocked down at the commencement of the mutiny. The officers and crew, on being landed at Breſt, were confined together in a priſon, the former were to be marched in a few days to Valenciennes, the latter, it is hoped, will ſhortly be returned to this country to receive the reward due to their atrocious crime, as it is ſaid to be the intention of the French government to ſend them over as priſoners. The officers arrived here were permitted, a few days after their arrival at Breſt to proceed to Morlaix, and embrace the firſt opportunity to embark in a cartel.

April 7. Advice has been received of the loſs of his Majeſty's ſhip Queen Charlotte, of 110 guns, Captain Todd, which was blown up off the harbour of Leghorn, on the 17th of March, when the commander, and above 800 of the crew, periſhed by the exploſion. Vice-Admiral Lord Keith, whoſe flag was flying on board of her, was, at the time, with ſome of the officers, on ſhore. Twenty commiſſioned and warrant officers, two ſervants, and 142 ſeamen were the whole of the perſons who eſcaped deſtruction.

Circumſtances immediately preceding and attending the Loſs of his Majeſty's Ship Queen Charlotte, off Leghorn, on the 17th of March 1800.

Mr John Braid, carpenter, of the Queen Charlotte, reports, that, about 20 minutes after ſix o'clock yeſterday morning as he was dreſſing himſelf, he heard throughout the ſhip a general cry of 'Fire!' on which he immediately ran up the fore ladder to get upon deck, and found the whole half-deck, the front bulk-head of the Admiral's cabin, the main-maſt's coat, and boat's covering on the booms, which, from every report and probability, he apprehends was occaſioned by ſome hay, which was lying under the half-deck, having been ſet on fire by a match in a tub, which was uſually kept there for ſignal guns. The main-ſail at this time was ſet, and almoſt entirely caught fire, the people not being able to come to the clue-garnets, on account of the flames. He immediately went on the forecaſtle, and found Lieutenant Dundas, and the boatſwain, encouraging the people to get water to extinguiſh the fire. He applied to Mr Dundas, ſeeing no other officer on the fore-part of the ſhip (and being unable to ſee any on the quarter deck, from the flames

and

and ſmoke between them) to give them aſſiſtance to drown the lower decks and ſecure the hatches, to prevent the fire falling down. Lieutenant Dundas went down himſelf, with as many people as he could prevail upon to follow him, and the lower deck ports were opened, the ſcuppers plugged, the main and fore-hatches ſecured, and the cocks turned, and water drawn in at the ports, and the pumps kept going by the people who came down, as long as they could ſtand at them. He thinks that, by theſe exertions, the lower deck was kept free from fire, and the magazines preſerved for a long time from danger; nor did Lieutenant Dundas or he quit this ſtation, but remained there, with all the people who could be prevailed upon to ſtay, till ſeveral of the middle-deck guns came through that deck. About nine o'clock, Lieutenant Dundas and he, finding it impoſſible to remain any longer below, went out at the foremoſt lower-deck port, and got upon the forecaſtle, on which he apprehends there were then about one hundred and fifty of the people, drawing water and throwing it as far aft as poſſible upon the fire. He continued about an hour on the forecaſtle; and finding all efforts to extinguiſh the flames unavailing, he jumped from the gib-boom, and ſwam to an American boat approaching the ſhip, by which he was picked up, and put into a tartan, then in the charge of Lieutenant Stewart, who had come off to the aſſiſtance of the ſhip.

(Signed) JOHN BRAID.

Leghorn, March 18.

The Queen Charlotte had juſt completed her equipments, and was to proceed to ſea in the courſe of a few days for Genoa, having on board a vaſt quantity of ſhells, grenades and mortar cartridges, for the ſiege of that place. She was launched in 1790, in immediate ſucceſſion off the ſhip of the Royal George, and was allowed, both as a prime ſailer, and for her other ſuperior qualities, to be the fineſt ſhip that ever diſplayed Engliſh colours. At her main, ſhe bore the triumphant flag of Earl Howe, on the memorable 1ſt of June 1794.

12. Tueſday laſt came on the election of a governor and deputy governor of the Bank of England for the year enſuing, when Samuel Thornton, Eſq; was choſen governor; and Job Mathew, Eſq; deputy governor.

14. The total of the principal debt of this country, as it ſtood on the 5th of January 1800, is 451,699,919l. 11s. 5¼d, the annual intereſt of which is 19,813,569l. 1s. 8¼d.

16. On Wedneſday, April 4, juſt after a ſhower of rain, the inhabitants of Stoke by Clare, Suffolk, were much alarmed at the ſudden appearance of a numerous ſwarm of animals on the village green, much of the ſhape and meagre frame of the grub graſshopper, ſo called, with long black legs, black heads, and gogling eyes. They remained there for ſome hours, and the herbage on which they preyed was found ſoon after to have loſt much of its verdure. They were ſeen the next day, in the neighbourhood, grubbing a young hedge-row on the road-ſide, and are conſidered as locuſts of a very deſtructive ſpecies, and their preſence much dreaded, as no attempts that have as yet been uſed to deſtroy them have ſucceeded.

A few days ſince, the workmen upon the canal at the Iſle of Dogs found, at the depth of ſix feet, a ſpur of uncommon dimenſions; it meaſured eleven inches from ſhank to ſhank; it was quite black, but on examination the man who found it diſcovered it to be pure gold. A few days afterwards they came to a horſe, about the ſame depth, ſtanding erect in a perfect ſtate. On being expoſed to the air, however, it fell to pieces.

Captures.

Bougainville privateer, 18 guns, by the Amazon.

Aquilla, Spaniſh ſhip, four guns by, the Apollo.

Le Vaillant privateer, 15 guns, by the Amethyſt.

La Vidette brig, 14 guns, by the Indefatigable.

L'Auſturiana, Spaniſh ſhip, 20 guns, by the Amphion.

La Modeſte privateer, 16 guns, by the La Nymphe.

Noſtra Siniora Carmen, Spaniſh lugger, two guns, by the Maria.

Vengeance privateer, 16 guns, by the Nereide.

Bellegarde privateer, 14 guns, by the Phœbe.

Maſſena

Maſſena privateer, four guns by the Plover.

Joſephina privateer, four guns, by the La Suffiſante.

Carmen, Spaniſh xebec, 16 guns, by the Penelope.

Telegraph privateer, 14 guns by the Kangaroo.

Le Coureur privateer, 14 guns, by the Revolutionaire.

Heureux privateer, 22 guns, by the Phebe.

El Batador, Spaniſh privateer, 14 guns, by the Cormorant,

La Vulture privateer, 22 guns, by the Caroline.

Perſeverant privateer, 14 guns, and Flibuſtier brig, 14 guns, by the Cruiſer.

The Chaſer lugger, 14 guns, by the Sea Flower.

Mars privateer, 22 guns by the Amethyſt.

Le Cerberre ſchooner, ſix guns, by the Uranie.

L'Inattendu cutter, two guns, by the Jalouſe.

La Virginie privateer, 14 guns by the Latona.

Coruneſa Spaniſh privateer, 26 guns, by the Flora.

L'Henreuſe Societe brig, 14 guns, by the Spitfire.

EDINBURGH.

We hear that the produce of the firſt year of the tax on income for the county and city of Edinburgh is nearly as follows: By the Commiſſioners for the county, about fifty thouſand pounds. By the Commiſſioners for the city, conſiderably above forty thouſand pounds. By the Commercial Commiſſioners, upwards of ſeven thouſand pounds. The total may be ſtated at ninety nine thouſand pounds at preſent; and as ſome returns yet remain to be adjuſted, the whole, it is thought, will come near to one hundred thouſand pounds.

12. On Wedneſday a fire broke out in a large houſe upon the road ſide, about a mile eaſtward of Haddington, commonly called the *Blue Houſe*, which totally conſumed the premiſſes and all the furniture, except one cheſt of cloaths.

19. We have authority, as well as ſatisfaction, to aſſure the public, that after a ſtrict ſcrutiny into the weight of bread in the different bakers ſhops both in the city and ſuburbs, by order of the Magiſtrates, the whole were found correct and agreeable to the preſent ſtandard of aſſize.

We are happy to obſerve, that a ſubſcription is now opened, under the patronage of the Lord Provoſt and Magiſtrates, for the relief of the ſufferers by the late fire in Brown's Cloſe, Luckenbooth's.

The American ſhip Lydia, Captain Tredwell, arrived at Greenock on Monday, from New York, with 1642 whole and two half barrels of flour, and a quantity of rice, after a paſſage of 33 days.

Several families have entered into reſolutions to diſcontinue the uſe of butter, until it falls to a reaſonable price. One week's abſtinence of the inhabitants would inſure this.

On Thurſday the 17th current came on, before Henry Davidſon Eſq; Sheriff Subſtitute for the county of Edinburgh, and a reſpectable Jury, the trial of *Henry Campbell*, coallier in Loanhead, accuſed of ſtealing a tup, and of being habit and repute a thief, which laſted ten hours, when the Jury returned a verdict, all in one voice finding the libel *not proven*; whereupon the pannel was aſſoilzied and diſmiſſed *ſimpliciter* from the bar.

A few days ago a gentleman laid bets to a conſiderable amount, that he would *fairly walk* from Edinburgh to Glaſgow in twelve hours: He performed it, from about the middle of Prince's Street to the Tontine Glaſgow, in eleven hours and eight minutes. The gentleman is a good deal under the middle ſtature, and met with very boiſterous weather and bad roads in the journey.

The contract for building Kelſo bridge was ſigned by the reſpective parties on Thurſday morning. The contractors are, Mr Murray of Edinburgh, and Mr Lees of Middleton, Eaſt Lothian. The work is to be ſet about immediately.

Addreſs from the Lord Provoſt, Magiſtrates, and Sheriff, to the Public.

The Lord Provoſt and Magiſtrates of Edinburgh, and the Sheriff of the county, have, for ſome time paſt, turned their whole attention to the preſent Dearneſs and Scarcity of Grain, and have had ſeveral meetings with different of the Juſtices of the Peace, and with

with the Corn Dealers in Edinburgh and Leith, with whoſe conduct, and earneſt with to ſupply the market, they have every reaſon to be ſatisfied.

The reſult of all the inquiries that have been made, is, that the Crop of Oats laſt Seaſon has been not only here, but all over Europe, much worſe, both in quantity and quality, than other Grain, and that, as the Countries from which a ſupply of Oats was expected, feeling the ſame ſcarcity as ourſelves, have prohibited the Exportation of Oats, a ſupply of Oat Meal, to any conſiderable amount, cannot be expected till after next harveſt.

At the ſame time, the Magiſtrates of the City and County can aſſure the People, that there is a ſufficiency of other kinds of Grain, which can be afforded at a much leſs price at preſent than Oat Meal; and therefore, they earneſtly recommend to the Inhabitants to conſume as little Oat Meal as poſſible, and to make Wheat and Barley Meal their chief article of food.

The Magiſtrates of the City and County have therefore recommended to the Dealers in Wheat, who have accordingly moſt readily agreed to the propoſal, to prepare Wheat into Meal, with which the market will in future be plentifully ſupplied. This Wheat Meal, mixed with one half of Barley Meal, makes moſt excellent food, either in the ſhape of Cakes or Porridge; and a Peck of Meal, half Wheat half Barley, which every family can mix for themſelves, can at preſent be retailed for about 2s. 4d. per Peck, Wheat Meal being at preſent 2s. 6d. and fine Barley Meal 2s. 2d. per Peck, and Bear Meal conſiderably lower.

The Magiſtrates and Sheriff cannot cloſe this Addreſs without calling, in the moſt earneſt manner, on every family, high and low, to be as œconomical of all kinds of Meal and Flour as poſſible; and, in particular, that all perſons keeping horſes only for carriages or riding, will on no account feed their horſes on Oats, but give them only Barley bruiſed, which is much more nutritive than when given whole.

JAMES STIRLING, Provoſt.

JAMES CLERK, Sheriff Depute.

April 25, 1800.

Leith races are to commence on Monday the 21ſt July.

Liſt of Accidents, &c. during the Month.

April 12. At Ayr two boys fell into the harbour, one of whom was drowned.

On Sunday the 12th an out-houſe, in the ſuburbs of Haddington was broken into and a quantity of grain carried off.

On Monday the 13th, about 8 o'clock in the evening, ſome young rogues, none of them above fourteen years of age, found means to cut a pane of glaſs from a grocer's ſhop window, High Street, and had nearly carried off ſome goods.

A man drowned in the harbour of Leith.

A woman run over by the Mail Coach at Dundee.

At Dundee, a poor man and 2 children found ſuffocated in bed.

APPEAL.

April 2. Riddick *v.* Douglas, Heron, & Co. The interlocutors of the Court of Seſſion affirmed, with variances.

London Commercial Report for March.

THE peculiar ſituation of ſome of the principal ſtates of Europe, which has for ſeveral years paſt contributed to throw an additional proportion of foreign trade into the hands of the merchants of this country, continues to increaſe this proportion, and conſequently to enable us to ſupport a conſiderable part of the enormous expence of the war, from which this comparative monopoly of foreign trade ariſes. From the vaſt returns of our extended commerce, combined with our manufactures and domeſtic induſtry, we are now enabled to raiſe upwards of twenty millions of revenue, notwithſtanding the further ſums raiſed by taxes of a different nature, a conſiderable part of which depends, though leſs directly, on the profits of trade. The increaſe of foreign commerce generally implies an increaſe of ſhipping, though not always in the ſame proportion, as from trading to different places, or in different commodities, the ſame veſſels may in one year tranſport articles of much greater value than in another; the tonnage of ſhipping employed in the mer-

chant ſervice at preſent is 1,400,000 valued at 11,500,000l.

The number of veſſels of different deſcriptions that arrive annually in the port of *London* is about 13,500; and the actual value of the goods imported from foreign parts amounts to thirty millions. The exports conſiſts of about twelve millions in value of Britiſh manufactures and fourteen millions of foreign merchandize, together twenty-ſix millions. The value of the goods imported in 9000 coaſting veſſels averaged at 500l. each is 4,500,000l.; and the value of the goods exported by about 7000 of theſe coaſters, at 1000l. each, is 7,000,000l. making with the foreign trade, the total value of the property, ſhipt and unſhipt, in the port of London in one year 67,500,000l. For the better ſecurity and accommodation of this great proportion of our commerce, ſome ſteps have at length been taken; the propoſed canals and docks, in the Iſle of Dogs, are begun, and as the ſeaſon advances the progreſs will be more conſiderable. We cannot however but regret, that the general conviction with reſpect to the nature and magnitude of the evils to be remedied, did not produce greater unanimity, with reſpect to the moſt eligible mode of removing them; and that particular intereſts or prejudices ſhould have divided the abilities and means which, united, might have accompliſhed the object in a ſuperior and more adequate manner. The diſtance of the Iſle of Dogs from the preſent ſeat of trade is an inconvenience that will be very ſtrongly felt by every perſon in London connected with the Weſt India trade; and we have little doubt, that if docks are alſo formed at Wapping, almoſt every ſhip which is at liberty to uſe either will prefer the latter.

The ſcarcity of *proviſions*, and their conſequent great advance in price, have naturally drawn the attention of ſome of our merchants to articles of this deſcription; though there can be no doubt they would have been more ready to tranſmit their orders to other countries, and leſs ſtrict in the limitation of them, had it not been for the recollection of the injudicious interference of government on a ſimilar occaſion a few years ſince, in purchaſing corn abroad on the public account, as it is evident individuals muſt act with much diſadvantage and uncertainty under a competition of this nature, while the benefit to the country is probably leſs than it would be if the importation was wholly left to the merchants; for there can be little doubt that while the price here of corn, or any other article, is ſuch as to afford a reaſonable profit on importation, orders will be ſent for as much as can be obtained, and if the price is not ſuch as to afford this profit, there can be little occaſion for importation at all. At preſent the aſſiſtance of government has been confined to bounty on importation, on the principle of indemnity to the importer for the difference between a certain price and the average price when the corn ſhall arrive. All common kinds of proviſion and moſt articles which can be in any way ſubſtituted for them, may at preſent be imported duty free, yet they continue to advance in price; Carolina rice is at preſent from 46s. to 48s. per cwt. Eaſt India ditto, from 42s. to 44s.

Raw ſugars have not of late experienced any material alteration in price, but refined ſugars are higher; lumps are at preſent from 94s. to 110s. ſingle loaves, 107s. to 118s. powder loaves, 110s. to 125s. tips, 60s. to 69s. middles, 65s. to 80s. and faces, 82s. to 90s.

The favourable weather during this month has advanced agriculture greatly. In every quarter vegetation is at leaſt three or four weeks earlier than laſt year. We are glad to be informed, from good authority, that in moſt counties, we hope throughout the iſland, at leaſt double (in ſome caſes greatly more) the uſual quantities of potatoes have been planted. Much attention has, we alſo hear, been paid to ſeed of every deſcription, ſo that if the ſeaſon proves tolerably good we may look forward for plenty and cheap markets, with ſome degree of confidence. Proviſions of all kinds have been uncommonly high-priced during the whole of the month. Beef and mutton from 6d. to 10d. per lb. Veal from 6d. to 8d. Lamb from 3s. to 7s. per quarter. Fiſh have been plenty and comparatively at a reaſonable price.

The Engliſh report ſays, that vegetation has ſeldom made a more rapid progreſs than during the preſent month. This has chiefly ariſen from the mild and

and very ſeaſonable falls of rain that took place in the early part, and the warm weather that ſucceeded. All the different kinds of crops, both of graſſes and grain, have, at preſent, the moſt promiſing appearances. The graſſes, both the common, and thoſe of the artificial ſorts, are generally luxuriant and flouriſhing. This is equally the ſtate of the meadow diſtricts and the more elevated mowing grounds; and in the paſtures too, both thoſe in the lower and higher ſituations, there is a conſiderable ſpring of graſs. The early ſown winter wheats have, in general, the healthy colour, and cover the ground very well, and thoſe of the ſpring kind are coming forward in the moſt promiſing way. Oats and Barley in many diſtricts are alſo in a vigorous ſtate of growth, and look well. In ſome wet ſituations, however, portions of ground ſtill remain to be ſown with theſe grains even in the ſouthern diſtricts; but this is not the caſe to any very great extent. Theſe are the common appearances which the reporter obſerved in a journey of ſome hundred miles through the middle of the kingdom. In the more northern parts of the iſland much field work is ſtill to be performed, eſpecially on the wetter ſorts of ſoil; but, on the whole, we believe farmers were ſeldom more forward at this period of the year in their different operations. In ſeveral diſtricts much ground has already been planted with potatoes, and conſiderable tracts of land in others, are under preparation for that valuable root. The ſcarcity and dearneſs of good ſeed has, however, prevented the planting of this vegetable to that extent which would otherwiſe have been the caſe.

The prices of all ſorts of grain ſtill keep up. *Wheat*, at Mark-lane, yields from 110s. to 134s. per quarter. The average price is 118s. The average of the different kinds of grain, in England and Wales, is, *Wheat* 113s. *Barley* 59s. 5d. *Oats* 48s. 5d. *Beans* 73s. 1d. *Peas* 63s. 8d.

The prices of all ſorts of fat cattle are now very high; but, from the great and ſudden change which has lately taken place in the ſtate of the paſtures, it is not probable that they can continue ſo any great length of time. In Smithfield market at this time, *Beef* yields from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 4d. per ſtone. *Mutton* and *Pork* from 5s. 4d. to 6s. 8d. *Veal* from 5s. to 7s. and *Lamb* from 6s. to 7s. 6d. In Newgate and Leadenhall markets, *Beef* ſells, by the pound, from 9d. to 1s. 2d. *Mutton* from 8d to 10d. *Veal* from 9d. to 1s. *Pork* from 9d. to 10d. and *Lamb* from 11d. to 13d.

FIARS.---Crop 1799.

Wigton ſhire.

Oat Meal	L.	2	16	0
Farm Meal		2	8	0
White Corn		2	0	0
Mixt Corn		1	15	0
Grey Corn		1	5	0
Beſt Bear		2	5	0
Farm Bear		2	0	0
Malt		3	15	0
Barley		2	10	0
Wheat, per quarter		3	12	0

All Galloway meaſure.

Lanark ſhire.

Beſt Oat meal, per boll	L.	1	15	0
Second		1	11	0
Beſt Oats, (ſeed excep.)		1	3	0
Second		0	18	0
Beſt Malt, (duty includ.)		1	14	0
Second		1	8	0
Beſt Wheat		1	17	0
Second		1	14	6
Beſt Bear		1	7	0
Second		1	5	0
Beſt Flour		2	8	0
Second		2	0	0

Stirling ſhire.

Oat Meal	L.	1	10	0
Wheat		2	0	0
Common Malt		1	12	0
Kerſe Bear		1	7	0
Dryfield Bear		1	7	0
Muirland Bear		1	0	0
Peaſe and Beans		1	8	0
Kerſe Oats		1	4	0
Dryfield Oats		1	3	0
Airfeed Oats		1	6	0
Kerſe Barley		1	10	0
Dryfield Barley		1	9	0
Barley Malt		1	12	0

County of Kincardine.

Oatmeal, per Boll	L.	1	9	0
White Oats, with Fodder		1	16	0
Ditto, without Fodder		1	4	0
Bear, with Fodder		1	10	0
Ditto, without Fodder		1	7	0
Peaſe, without Fodder		1	10	0
Wheat,		1	17	0

County of Aberdeen.

Great Oats, with Fodder	L.	1	13	0

Wheat without Fodder	1	0	0
Brocked Oats, with Fodder	1	7	0
Ditto, without Fodder	0	15	0
Bear, with Fodder	1	16	0
Ware Bear, with Fodder	1	10	0
Ditto, without Fodder	1	4	0
Farm, or Market Bear, without Fodder	1	8	0
White Meal, 9 ſtone	1	10	0
Farm Meal, 8 ſtone	1	6	8
Small Oats, with Fodder	1	0	0
Ditto, without Fodder	0	12	0
Market Malt	1	8	0
Peaſe	1	6	8
Wheat	2	0	0
Rye	1	5	0
County of Mid-Lothian.			
Beſt Wheat, per boll L.	2	0	9
Second ditto,	1	16	5
Beſt Barley	1	13	1
Second ditto	1	9	5
Third ditto	1	7	0
Beſt Oats	1	9	4
Second ditto	1	2	9
Beſt Oatmeal, 8 ſtone, no evidence			
Peaſe and Beans	1	10	0

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

At the Cape of Good Hope, General Dundas, to Miſs Eliza Cumming, daughter of the late Sir John Cumming of the Bengal eſtabliſhment.

March 22. At Haddington, Mr John Mear, ſurgeon, to Miſs Chriſtina Craw, 5th daughter of the late Mr John Craw, writer there.

29. At Montroſe, Mr John Beattie, merchant, to Miſs Agnes Hill, daughter of the late Mr Thomas Hill of Montroſe.

31. At Ayr, Lieutenant Thomas Steele, of the Royal Perthſhire militia, to Miſs Janet Smith, daughter of Alexander Smith of Abbothill, Eſq.

April 3. At Inverneſs, Major M'Caſkill, inſpecting field officer of that diſtrict, to Miſs Shaw, daughter of James Shaw of Wateriſh.

— At London, the Moſt Hon. the Marquis of Abercorn, to Lady Ann Hatton.

5. Lieutenant Colonel James Pringle, of the Eaſt India Company's ſervice, to Miſs Charlotte Halkett, daughter of the late Sir John Halkett of Pitfirran, Bart.

— Hay Smith, Eſq; banker in Haddington, to Miſs Yeomans, daughter of the late Dr Yeomans, Shrewſbury.

8. At Brackenſide, Hugh Mair, Eſq; of Wyſeby, to Miſs Stewart, daughter of David Stewart, Eſq.

12. At Edinburgh, Charles Badham, Eſq; of London, to Miſs Margaret Campbell, daughter of the late Mr John Campbell, merchant in Edinburgh.

— At Liverpool, James Mackenzie Steuart, Eſq; of Urrard, to Miſs Leckie, daughter of Captain Leckie of Lancaſter.

13. At Paiſley, Mr Robert Winning, ſurgeon of the 57th regiment, to Miſs Margaret Dalgleiſh of that place.

BIRTHS.

Mrs Cumming of Logie, a ſon.

Jan. 14. At Gibraltar, the Lady of Lieutenant-Colonel Martin Hunter, of the 48th regiment, a ſon.

April 1. Mrs Farquharſon of Howden, a daughter.

4. Lady Mary Murray, a daughter.

13. Mrs Macleod of Dalvey, a daughter.

15. At Torbreck, the Lady of Dr John Macdonald, a ſon.

17. Lady Sinclair of Ulbſter, a daughter.

26. At Gogar houſe, Mrs Ramſay, a a daughter.

27. Mrs Hay of Newhall, a ſon.

DEATHS.

March 23. Sir Charles Preſton, of Valleyfield, Bart. one of the Commiſſioners of the Board of Cuſtoms, died at his houſe in Nicolſon's Square. When Major of the Cameronians, he was diſtinguiſhed by the gallant defence of St John's, which ſaved the province of Canada. He was afterwards member for the Fife boroughs of Kirkcaldy, &c.

26. Sir John Menzies, Baronet.

30. At Alloa, Mr Robert Campbell, late of Middleton Cuſe.

April 2. At Banchory Ternan, the Rev. Frances Dauney, miniſter of that pariſh.

5. At Edinburgh, Mr James Cunningham, late of Hyndhope.

— Thomas Hunter of Mountford, Eſq.

Haddington, April 25.

Wheat, 55s. Barley, 54s. Oats, 57s. Peaſe, 60s. Beans, 50s.

Edinburgh, April 30. Oat-meal, 3s. 7d. Bear-meal, 2s. Peaſe-meal, 2s. 2d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

April 9.	April 24.
Bank Stock 165	161½
3 per cent. red. ſhut	63⅛
3 per cent. conſ. 64¼	63¾
4 per cent. anns. 83⅜	ſhut
India Stock 210	209½
Eng. Lot. Tic. —	—